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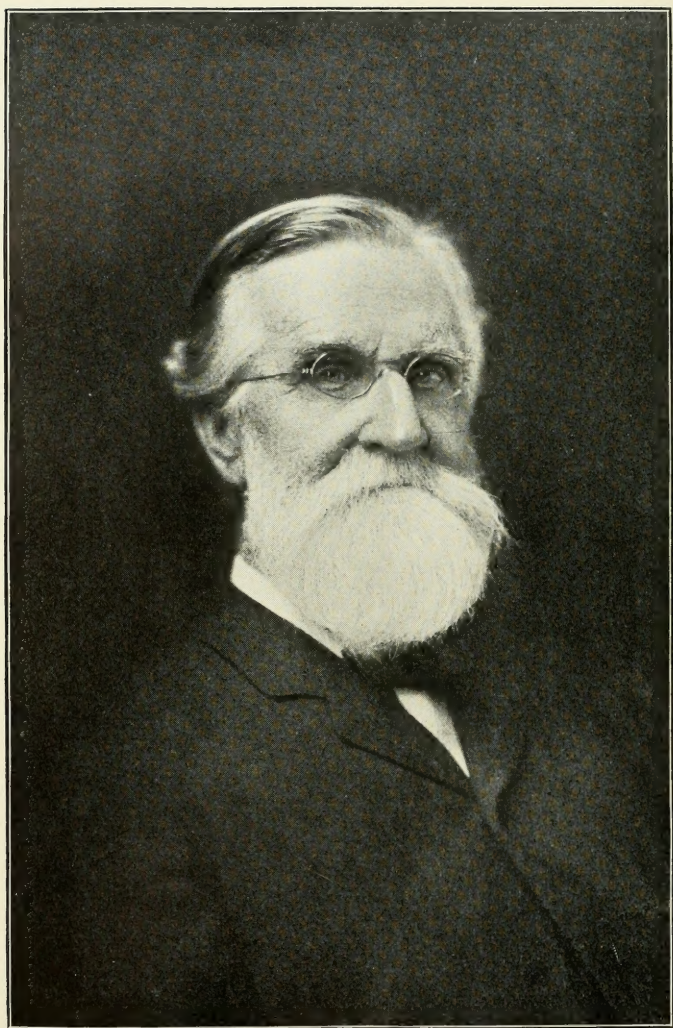












*Benjamin Shipps*

BULLETIN  
OF THE  
National Association  
OF  
WOOL MANUFACTURERS,  
1906.

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# BULLETIN

OF THE

National Association of Wool Manufacturers.

A QUARTERLY MAGAZINE

DEVOTED TO THE INTERESTS OF THE NATIONAL WOOL INDUSTRY.

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VOL. XXXVI.]

BOSTON, MARCH, 1906.

[No. I.]

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## THE RECIPROCITY MOVEMENT IN 1905 AND ITS PRESENT STATUS.

### WHY THE NEW GERMAN TARIFF WAS FRAMED.

THE agitation for what is called reciprocity is now being carried on with renewed vigor. During the past year it assumed a decidedly different scope, enlisted new adherents, and is not now confined to Massachusetts. In tracing its progress, its new aspect, and wider field of operation it becomes evident that the effort to negotiate reciprocity treaties has been abandoned, and that retaliation, though disclaimed, will be the inevitable outcome of the course (if adopted) of those who proclaimed a year ago and still proclaim to-day the securing of international commercial amity and good-will to be their mission. This contradiction of their profession by their works is due to the change from advocacy of reciprocity by treaty to a demand for the maximum and minimum tariff, which cannot be anything but retaliation, treating well those who treat us well and retaliating against those who treat us ill. To realize the present situation it will be necessary to take a view, in retrospect, of the movement as it began in Massachusetts, its growth during 1905, and the present demand.

## THE DEMAND FOR RECIPROCITY IN 1904.

During 1904, when the discussion was well under way in this Commonwealth, those who favored reciprocity demanded that it should be between Canada and Newfoundland on one side and the United States on the other, asserting, as they did, that some such immediate arrangement was necessary and vital to the interests of New England, and to Massachusetts in particular. To support their demand the geographical argument was pressed with great earnestness and the urgent need of the dense population of the State was alleged to be the various productions of the Dominion and its neighbor, Newfoundland. At first, generalities alone were advanced, no body of advocates going on record by resolution for any specific program. To reënforce their demand the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854 was constantly cited, and arguments, based upon trade balances, were made to show its favorable workings during its continuance, and the likelihood of the same or much more favorable workings should what they were striving for be accomplished. The propaganda, from the demand made and the appeals to the Treaty of 1854, stood for the negotiation of reciprocity treaties with our two northern neighbors. Some of its advocates, however, were on record as not confining the course to be adopted to treaties, if similar results could be obtained by other methods. This restriction of the benefits to the two countries, it is needless to say, could not be accomplished except by treaty; for, if attempted by changes in a general tariff act, all countries trading with the United States, under our system of applying customs laws equally and impartially to all, would be sharers in the benefits arising therefrom.

But the futility of limiting the demand to a treaty or treaties with the countries in question became apparent early in the year when a canvass of the situation in Canada and the Provinces drew attention to the fact that two parties are necessary to conclude a bargain; and that, howsoever anxious and insistent the agitators this side the border were for a reciprocity treaty, there was not only no demand for it on the part of the Canadian people and press, but an abso-

lute opposition to it, a perfect contentment with Canada's development, and a manifest desire to give free rein to the national aspiration for industrial independence.

#### A CANVASS OF PAPERS SHOWED CANADA IN OPPOSITION.

The canvass was conducted by the Boston "Commercial Bulletin," itself friendly to closer relations with Canada, and its fairness and accuracy cannot be questioned. The publishers of the paper, in their circular to the Canadian editors, went on record as favoring some concessions on hides, coal, wheat, and timber. The Dominion's papers were asked what United States duties should be reduced for Canada's benefit and to what extent, in return for the removal or substantial reduction of Canadian duties on goods manufactured in the United States, such as carriages, agricultural implements, shoes, clothes, woollens, and rubber goods. The inquiry was sent to 241 papers, with an aggregate circulation of 1,023,653 copies. Of these, 22 papers, with a circulation of 92,223, favored some concessions from the present Canadian duties on United States manufactures in exchange for some reciprocal concessions on our part. Six, with a circulation of 23,000, favored absolute free trade; 7 declared that the United States must reduce duties before Canada could consider the proposal; 3 declined to discuss the question; 12 were non-committal; 82 were too indifferent to express an opinion; and 109 opposed concessions on any terms. This opposition seemed to be general throughout the wide area of the Dominion. In Manitoba, British Columbia, and the Northwest Territories the feeling was hostile, though in not so marked a degree as in Ontario and Quebec. In New Brunswick the opinion was somewhat divided, though on the whole hostile, while even in Nova Scotia, to be benefited by the new market for its coal, the feeling was of "utter indifference, rather than hostility." Not a single Canadian daily newspaper with a circulation of 5,000 copies declared for either reciprocity or free trade; in fact, the chief daily newspapers opposed any concessions in Canadian duties on any terms. Even among those favoring reciprocity there was the familiar demand for

the admission of the Canadian food products similar to that of 1854 and subsequent years.

From the consensus of opinion thus secured it became apparent at once that there was slight basis, if any, on which to negotiate a treaty. The opposition to concessions and the growth of the protectionist idea was so evident that the Liberal party, which has stood heretofore for low duties and won control of the government from the MacDonald administration with that as a political tenet, does not now dare to incorporate into law that part of its professed faith. At the present time, judging from this extensive canvass of the framers of public opinion, and the views of Canadians prominent in the political life of the country, a reciprocity treaty with the Dominion is a dream and is not now obtainable, howsoever much it may be desired by those enlisted in its behalf in the United States.

#### WANING INTEREST REVIVED BY GERMANY'S ACTION.

With the impossibility of securing results with Canada thus presented forcibly to the people, interest in the question had begun to abate, when the smouldering embers were fanned into a glowing flame by the action of Germany in giving notice of the abrogation on March 1 next of the existing reciprocity treaty with that empire. This served to arouse certain livestock interests which fancied they discerned therein a studied purpose on the part of the German government to close that market to American agricultural and livestock products. This alarm was eagerly seized upon by the eastern agitators for Canadian reciprocity as an excellent opportunity to revive the waning interest in the question and enlarge the field for its discussion and application. A reciprocity conference was summoned by organizations representing interests chiefly concerned in the production of livestock and agricultural implements to meet in Chicago. The call for the gathering grossly exaggerated the gravity of the situation; alarmed timid producers by holding out the danger of immediate loss of markets in which millions of dollars' worth of agricultural exports have been sold; and attributed such



action upon the part of Germany to resentment, declaring that we are "face to face with a new and prohibitive German tariff designed to keep out every pound of American bread-stuffs and provisions."

In this connection it may be worth while to get a correct idea of the past history of German tariff-making and the negotiation of reciprocity treaties, this being necessary to a true understanding of the German position.

#### GERMANY'S TARIFFS IN THE PAST.

Low prices in 1878 made possible the grain duties in the German tariff act of 1879. These, with the duties on livestock, were successively raised in the revisions of 1885 and 1887 until they were the highest in Europe. Soon thereafter were secured by the agrarian interests the inspection measures which aimed at the exclusion of foreign meats and livestock. In 1891 Germany experienced a failure of the harvests, and prices for agricultural products rose to alarming heights, which made a continuance of the duties impossible, and they were suspended without opposition on the part of the agrarians, if not with their approval. Prior to 1890 Germany had reciprocal trade treaties with many of her neighbors with whom she had made favorable bargains. Those with Servia, Roumania, Italy, Austria, France, and Spain would expire in 1891, and several of the countries expecting to make new treaties had given notice of an intention to increase their tariffs. Desiring to avoid the disturbing conditions caused by the frequent revisions of the previous decade, to secure a certain amount of stability for a specified time, and to abolish the cause for popular agitation — the high prices for foodstuffs — Chancellor Caprivi's program was to reduce the duties on agricultural products and negotiate trade treaties with neighboring European states. In December, 1891, such treaties, containing the most favored nation clause and to continue for twelve years, were concluded with Austria-Hungary, Italy, Switzerland, and Belgium. Up to the year 1894 treaties were concluded with other countries, the Russian being the last negotiated.

Their ratification was secured not without considerable opposition, the full strength of it, however, not being shown in the small adverse vote recorded.

#### THE AGRARIAN LEAGUE AND ITS PURPOSES.

If the agrarians, "whose agitation and influence are as much a power as a perplexity in contemporary German politics," failed to prevent the conclusion of these treaties, it was not from lack of effort. Not deterred by failure, an Agrarian League was formed almost immediately — in 1892 — some of its purposes being to prevent reductions of the then existing duties, to oppose commercial treaties which might cause a reduction of those duties, to secure more protection for agricultural interests and a readjustment, in the interests of agriculture, of the treaty with the United States. The agrarian party is composed chiefly of great land-holders and their dependents, who wield very considerable political power, and whose representatives form in the Reichstag an important group upon whom the government must depend for support for many of its measures. While recognizing the growth and development of industrial Germany, they have insisted that with sufficient encouragement German agricultural resources would be found sufficient for the needs of the people. Their propaganda has been thorough, persistent, and productive of results, for in the last tariff act they secured higher rates than ever upon competing products, and to them the concession was made of minimum rates for agricultural products below which reciprocity treaties are not permitted to carry the duties.

#### HOW THE NEW TARIFF WAS FRAMED AND PASSED.

With the time for the expiration of these treaties approaching, it became necessary to continue them in force or negotiate new ones. Discussion of prolonging them was begun in the Reichstag as early as 1897, at which time an economic committee, a majority of whose members were protectionists, was appointed to make the preliminary inquiries. The bill

as produced greatly increased the rates of duty on grain, livestock, and meats, and put on the free list certain articles used in agriculture. The struggle before this committee over the rates was intense, the agrarians succeeding in wringing from it increases on their products, and securing finally from the government the concession of minimum duties, the only interest so favored. Perhaps not forgetful of the fate which overtook Caprivi — who had been responsible for the treaties of the decade previous, thereby incurring the relentless opposition of the landed interests which eventually forced his resignation — Chancellor von Bülow soon announced, in answer to a demand made upon him, that he favored adequate protection for agricultural produce; and in presenting the bill to the Reichstag he confessed his desire was “to meet those wishes which have been expressed by the agricultural interests in favor of increased protection.” The bill, with duties increased on both manufactures and agrarian products, was forced through by an alliance with the government, was signed by the emperor December 25, 1902, and will go into effect March 1, 1906. Meanwhile reciprocity treaties, based on the new law, have been concluded with seven neighboring countries, — Italy, Belgium, Switzerland, Austria-Hungary, Roumania, Servia, and Russia, the last being ratified by the Reichstag February 22, 1905. The passage of the tariff act in 1902 and the conclusion of these treaties necessitated the abrogation by Germany of the treaty with this country negotiated under our act of 1897, deprived, as it thus was, of a basis on which to rest.

The situation which confronts the United States with respect to Germany is the result of years of organization and agitation by the agrarians of the empire for greater protection for their interests — a demand yielded by Bismarck though modified by his successor, Caprivi — rather than an act of hostility caused by the tariff policy of the United States. It is the culmination of a struggle extending without efficient organization up to 1892 and thereafter continuing until the views advocated were recognized and incorporated into the law of the empire.

At the same time German economists fear the organization, at a not very remote period, of huge international combinations which are expected to compete for the world's trade. Great Britain, her colonies and dependencies, it is thought, will form one; the Russian Empire and the Asiatic countries which it dominates, another; the United States, a third; and Japan, whose commercial importance in the trade of the Orient will be felt greatly within the next decade, still another. Considering the family and political alliances the German emperor has been able to make with many European countries and keeping in mind the danger threatened by such combinations, as indicated above, to the growing export business of Germany, is not her policy of making commercial treaties with her neighbors explained and readily understood?

#### WHAT GERMANY'S GRIEVANCE IS UNDERSTOOD TO BE.

The impression seems to be that Germany's grievance, as popularly expressed, is due more to the activity of American consuls in transmitting information concerning German trade secrets and to the administration of our customs laws, which are declared to be onerous to foreign exporters, than it is to the existence of our tariff law of 1897. Recent efforts have been made by the German ambassador to secure some relaxation of those laws in Germany's favor, presumably in return for tariff concessions from her. His requests as stated are: that undervaluations of 10 per cent shall not be penalized; that American consular officers in Germany shall, in estimating values, consult German boards of trade and be governed by their views; that invoices be sworn in the districts of their manufacture instead of in the consular districts in which they originate; and that in determining prices, the export price, which is always much lower than the domestic, shall govern. This request in itself, if granted, would mean an immediate reduction of at least 10 per cent in valuation, not only to Germany but to all countries, for it is obvious that such valuable concessions could not be granted to one country and denied to others.



## INTENTION TO INJURE AMERICAN INTERESTS DISCLAIMED.

That direct injury to American trade was intended by this latest tariff, with its increased rates on some of this country's principal exports, was recently disclaimed by Chancellor von Bülow, who again affirmed its purpose to be to aid Germany's agriculture, which suffered in consequence of the treaties of the nineties. While our exports to Germany exceed hers to this country by almost a hundred million dollars — a cause of complaint by some of her professors of economics — the excess is due almost entirely to her very heavy takings of raw materials, cotton, copper, and foodstuffs. Of her more than a hundred million dollars of exports to the United States, seventy odd million dollars represent manufactured articles, of which some \$25,000,000 are textiles, while the manufactured exports of the United States to Germany do not exceed \$13,000,000 of the total \$212,000,000. That Germany should be anxious for tariff reprisals, under such conditions, standing as she does to lose much more than the United States, is not easily comprehended. Some temporary injury may be done our interests, should no understanding be reached prior to March 1: but it does not follow that that market will be totally lost, as the alarmists proclaim, or that other markets will not open for the agricultural products of our western States. If the meats, livestock, and grains from the treaty countries are diverted to the German market, there will be created thereby a so much larger outlet for American products in the markets of Belgium, Great Britain, and other importing countries. It will be simply a change of markets and not a loss for American producers. Our foodstuffs in such quantities as we can spare are needed in European countries and the western interests need not anticipate a permanent loss in consequence of Germany's new tariff.

Even before the taking effect of this new German tariff act and the new reciprocity treaties, Germany is suffering from a meat shortage which is causing distress and consequent dissatisfaction with the present laws passed in agrarian interests. Their declaration that German wants can be fully supplied by German production has been proved untrue.



Austria suffers from prices so high as to place meat out of the reach of the proletarian classes, so that Germany can get no relief from that quarter. Cattle disease is prevalent in Italy and Hungary and supplies are not to be sought from them. Her manufacturers, whose success in the markets of the world depends upon low cost of production, look with alarm at the largely increased cost of living for their operatives, realizing that, if conditions continue, wages must be increased and their chances of successful competition lessened. The German situation is attributed by their chambers of commerce to the restrictions governing importations of American meats and effectual relief is predicted only when such restrictions are modified or removed. The facts appear to sustain the belief that the German people will suffer more from the application of the general tariff duties to American foodstuffs than will the American producer; and that time, rather than surrender or attempted retaliation on our part, will work the change desired by the interests prominent in the calling of the Chicago conference.

#### NEITHER COUNTRY SEEKS A TARIFF WAR.

Neither country is seeking a tariff war. Germany expresses a desire to conclude another treaty to take the place of the one denounced; but with the feeling in this country against individual trade treaties and the special conditions to be met with in Germany, it is a problem how to arrange a *modus vivendi* which shall avoid the application of the German general tariff to the products of the United States entering that country; for Germany, heretofore recognizing the favored nation clause in the treaty of 1828 with Prussia as applying to the empire, now gives evidences of changing that policy and adopting that long prevalent in the United States — that such a treaty contains a consideration which moves only from the country signing it, and all other countries, even though having favored nation clauses in their treaties, are not entitled thereby to share in the benefits for which the treaty country has paid a price.

But should the entire German market for American meat

products be lost, it will amount to but little more than one-fifth of the \$100,000,000 which the Reciprocal Tariff League announces will be the annual damage caused to the American farmers by this new German tariff. During 1904 provisions of all classes, including lard, meats, butter, cheese, oleomargarine, etc., exported to Germany amounted to \$21,822,696. Of this total, \$14,931,540, or more than two-thirds, are due to the export of lard, which Germany and other countries, enforcing hindering regulations against the importation of other meat products, import in large quantities from this country. In fact, practically their only source of supply of this article is the United States, shipments from other countries being relatively unimportant.<sup>1</sup> Therefore, excluding this commodity which, on the authority of the United States Department of Agriculture, cannot well be secured elsewhere, we have at stake a possible loss, if the worst fears are realized, of an export market for our meat products of all kinds not exceeding in value \$6,892,156; for, it must be remembered, that since 1894 the importation into Germany of cattle and fresh beef from the United States has been prohibited. Surely a bagatelle for the livestock interests to hold up as a bugaboo to the cattle producers of the country.

Breadstuffs, exported to Germany in 1904 to the value of \$16,215,211, form a less important feature of our trade than formerly, because the United States is less able than formerly, owing to increased population and increased home consumption, to spare to the outside world products of this character. It is not likely that the loss of this market for 13,208,725 bushels of corn valued at \$7,157,959, or of 7,490,648 bushels of wheat, valued at \$5,962,112, or of 544,402 barrels of flour, valued at \$2,182,420, would seriously cripple the farmers or the millers of this country. Just as the proportion of the cotton crop consumed at home is constantly increasing, so in equal, if not greater, proportion is increasing our consumption of the products of the farms of this country. In spite of increased crops, the exports of provisions of all kinds have decreased within recent years and this decline is no more

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<sup>1</sup> Meat in Foreign Markets. U. S. Department of Agriculture. — Bulletin No. 39.

strongly apparent in our exports to Germany than to other countries. We are producing more than ever, but the home market is constantly expanding and constantly becoming more valuable to the home producer. And it has been precisely within this period of reduced exports and increased crops — when the industries of the United States have been most steadily employed — that the best prices have been realized by the producers of such commodities. All the troubles suggested by the Reciprocal Tariff League are anticipatory, and may never be experienced. It will be surprising if the men attached to the soil, who have been experiencing unusual prosperity within recent years, are led, in their search for remedies for troubles still in the future, to adopt nostrums which give no assurance of making their condition better than it has been.

#### CONFLICTING INTERESTS OF RECIPROCITARIANS.

The Chicago conference was attended by some six hundred delegates representing commercial, agricultural, and livestock interests, but few delegates from manufacturing organizations being present. It is only necessary to glance at the views held in different sections of the country and by some of the various bodies represented to understand the difficulties confronting those who favor reciprocity treaties in reconciling antagonistic views and interests.

A year ago in this Commonwealth those favoring reciprocity with Canada and Newfoundland, when driven to state their specific demand, declared in one breath for free food-stuffs that the cost of living might be reduced for the laboring man — for whom tender solicitude was expressed — and in the other, assured the farmer of New England that no injury to his interest was intended thereby.

In the advertisements now appearing in the agricultural papers, signed by the secretary of the American Reciprocal Tariff League, the offspring of the conference, an effort is made to enlist the farmers in the reciprocity movement, because, as is there stated, foreign outlets must be found for the grains, live animals, and meats produced by the

United States, or prices will fall to an unprofitable level. Here are exhibited the diametrically opposite purposes of the leaders in this propaganda. In the East the hope is held out to the laboring man that lower prices for his food will be the result of reciprocity with Canada. In the West the farmers are urged to favor the same principle for the purpose of keeping up prices and preventing a surplus and glut in the domestic market. In the former section an inlet is sought to be provided for provisions at lower prices; in the latter an outlet is sought to prevent those lower prices desired in the East. An early note of discord was struck when an eastern delegate favored free hides for the shoe industry and the general manager of one of the associations calling the conference strenuously objected to the demand. The convention avoided the rock of discord by steering away from specific schedules. Only thus did it escape antagonisms and out-croppings of sectionalism which would have made the conference abortive and barren of any results whatever. With such divergent and irreconcilable ideas early manifest, is it any wonder that particulars were shunned and the resolutions were confined to generalities, so that the agitation can be continued by each section demanding what is considered its special needs?

#### THE DECLARATION OF THE CONFERENCE.

After two days of discussion the demands of the participants proved to be reduction of tariff duties rather than the negotiation of reciprocity treaties; a declaration in the resolutions favoring a maximum and minimum tariff, with the present rates as the maximum; the appointment of a permanent tariff commission, and the formation of a permanent organization under the name of the American Reciprocal Tariff League.

The action of the conference in adopting the maximum and minimum tariff and the abandonment of reciprocity by the treaty method hardly squares with resolutions with which we are familiar in New England, calling for "the substitution, in our foreign relations, of the principle of reciprocity for



that of exclusion and retaliation," or with the call for the conference which was couched in similar phrase. Reciprocity by treaty was abandoned in the house of its supposed friends, and few there be that mourn. The Kasson treaties, so recently held up as models of shrewd negotiation, which their supporters declared, if ratified, would have been of incalculable benefit to our commerce, have been relegated to the rear, are now acknowledged to have been wisely rejected by the Senate, and are no longer to be thought of.

#### THE DUAL TARIFF IS RETALIATION.

The dual tariff scheme was adopted (1) to avoid the necessity of securing a two-thirds majority of the Senate for the ratification of a treaty, and (2) to avoid the objection, acknowledged to be strong, that such treaties would be unfair to our best customer, Great Britain. That there is a marked difference between reciprocity treaties and the dual tariff — a distinction not comprehended by many advocates from this section — was pointed out by Senator Cullom in his speech to the conference, when he said: "But if we cannot secure the ratification of reciprocity treaties there is one other method, and that is the adoption of a maximum and a minimum tariff. Have a minimum tariff, applicable to all nations which give our products the most favored nation treatment, and a maximum tariff, say 25 per cent higher, to apply to nations which discriminate against our products.

"The adoption of this principle would not accomplish for our foreign trade all that reciprocity would accomplish. It would not open any very extensive new markets for our products, but it would prevent discrimination. A maximum and minimum tariff is more in the way of retaliation; but something must be done, and if we cannot secure reciprocity I shall favor the enactment of a law by Congress providing a maximum tariff to be applicable to every nation that discriminates against our products. There are two remedies, reciprocity or a maximum and minimum tariff, and as it appears now, the latter, if either, is the method that will be adopted."

In spite of this plain warning — this pointing out of the two



methods — the one declared to be conciliatory, the other in the nature of retaliation; in spite of the declaration in the call in favor of reciprocity rather than exclusion; in spite of the fact that the enlargement of the foreign market was one object of the conference and the dual tariff was not held up by Senator Cullom as an instrument to open any very extensive new markets, the conference discarded the one method supposedly in harmony with their views and adopted the other, which is not intended either to allay antagonism and retaliation or expected to increase foreign trade, the professed objects of those seeking reciprocal arrangements. What is wanted in this country is not a system causing endless confusion, entailing as many different tariff rates on the same article as there are countries with which treaties are in force; nor one yielding advantages to countries enforcing high rates against us while at the same time denying the same concessions to our best customer, simply because she gives us free access to her markets and has nothing more to yield. The last stage of such legislation would be far worse than the first.

#### AGREEMENT WITH GERMANY MUST BE BY TREATY.

The lessening of the supposed evil effects upon the export trade of this country of the new German tariff is scarcely to be accomplished by the dual tariff scheme. The only result of its application will be retaliation, for the only way to make terms with Germany is by a reciprocity treaty, inasmuch as she has no dual schedule, except the one governing agricultural products, and the only arrangement she is able to make with each country is by special convention. Thus it appears to follow, if the recommendation of the conference is adopted, that by its action this country is really prevented from concluding any arrangement intended to improve our commercial relations and extend our commerce — if they can be so improved and extended by such treaties — with the very country whose action influenced, if it did not occasion, the calling of the assemblage.

But if these western stock men and producers are to feel

the injurious effect of Germany's action — a result we would regret and deplore — it will be because of the application by Germany of the theories which they met in conference to forward and to have incorporated into this country's policy, the negotiation of trade treaties. The complaint against Germany cannot be that she has discriminated against us, but that by making treaties of reciprocity with her European neighbors our products, heretofore sent her, will not hereafter be admitted on as favorable terms as those coming from countries with which treaties have been concluded.

#### WHAT THE REAL QUESTION IS.

The real question is: Can the United States, in order to meet Germany's desires and secure an equal chance for our foodstuffs in her markets with the other treaty countries, afford to reduce our tariff on manufactured goods, so that Germany can sell in our markets increased amounts of cotton, woolen, and silk goods, toys, china, hosiery, and glass — thereby displacing similar products of American manufacture and lessening the home demand for the products of American farms? It is practically the same question which confronts the framer of any reciprocity treaty. What interest is to make the sacrifice? And to have that answered by one man, howsoever wise he may be, rather than by the united wisdom of the representatives of all the people, is a risk which few men, when great interests are at stake, are willing to take. And it is that very feature, along with the impossibility of avoiding discrimination against our best customer, Great Britain, which makes the reciprocity convention or treaty so objectionable to many of our people.

No thoughts are entertained that out of this agitation will be granted free raw materials for the wool manufacturer. There was no suggestion of it in the requests of the eastern delegates, and certainly no indications are in evidence that the western contingents are struggling to make this concession to the industry. Eastern delegates made no demand for free wool or even reduced duties on wool, but confined their efforts to talking about the needs of the shoe industry for

free hides. Even concession concerning this duty, which the cattlemen were told but added to the revenues of the Beef Trust and yielded them little or nothing, was opposed in the conference by the General Manager of the National Livestock Association, one signer of the call for the conference. It was a significant incident which serves to show how difficult, if not impossible, it is to attempt to reconcile such divergent interests in the effort to attain the avowed purpose of the prime movers of the convention. All advocates of the principle are enthusiastically in favor of it, but when it comes to practical methods of carrying that principle into effect, every one is willing to sacrifice any industries rather than his own. This is further exemplified by the position of the sheep papers, whose editors may be willing that schedules pertaining to other industries shall be scaled, but as for the rates on wool they are perfectly satisfactory, and no wool-grower is willing to have them touched or reduced in the slightest particular. All of this points to the fact that it was wisdom on the part of those in charge of the conference to restrict their declaration to generalities and not attempt to particularize. If they had done the latter the irreconcilable differences would have been disclosed and the conference would have dissolved in the early stages of its deliberation.

#### PERMANENT TARIFF COMMISSION ADVOCATED.

The declaration in favor of a permanent tariff commission, to be appointed by the President and to be composed of economic, industrial, and commercial experts, to suggest schedules and items to be granted in the reciprocal concessions advocated, is not a new suggestion. It was made years ago and many good arguments can be made in its favor; but one great difficulty would be to secure for such important work experts unbiased by preconceived economic opinions. Experiments in the past, along this line, have not worked well, as witness the marked changes made by Congress in the bill proposed by the commission of 1882. The House of Representatives has always been jealous of its

prerogative to originate and construct revenue raising bills and it is not to be supposed that it will be less so in the future.

If, however, by such means it would be possible to amend inequalities and crudities, and modify rates outgrown; if thereby stable conditions could be secured and the threat of tariff revision — so harmful to business — could be reduced to the minimum, it is believed such an innovation would be joyfully accepted by those whose interests have been and are so materially bound up in the tariff and affected by its alteration.

A permanent organization has been formed and an effort is to be made to reach individual farmers, to interest them in "Reciprocity," and through them to apply pressure to their representatives in Congress. This is the plan which proved so effective in securing the enactment of the oleomargarine law. Whether there is a widespread interest in the principle of reciprocity or the means adopted to carry it out remains to be proved.

#### PROPOSED MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM LEGISLATION.

Already two bills have been introduced into the Congress relating to the question — one in the Senate,<sup>1</sup> and the other in the House.<sup>2</sup> The former grants a reduction in existing

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1 That when any country discriminates against any article or articles the growth or product of the soil or industry of the United States by levying upon such article or articles duties, imposts, excises, or taxes in excess of those levied upon similar articles imported from other countries, or further in any way fails to admit the products of the United States on terms as favorable as those accorded to any other nation, then there shall be levied and collected upon all articles the growth or product of the soil or industry of the country so discriminating against the products of the United States duties per centum in excess of those now established by law.

SECT. 2. That when any country admits any article or articles the growth or product of the soil or industry of the United States on an exact equality with similar articles the products of other countries and on the terms and at the rates of duty accorded to the most favored nation, then all articles the growth or product of the soil or industry of such country shall be admitted to the United States at rates of duty per centum less than those now established by law.

2 "That when any country discriminates against any article or articles the growth or product of the soil or industry of the United States by levying upon such article or articles duties, imposts, excises, or taxes in excess of those levied upon similar articles imported from any other country, or further in any way fails to admit the products of



rates to countries yielding to our products their minimum rates; to those discriminating against our products an increase in the rates now existing is provided for, and against countries having but one tariff rate the present rates are presumably to be applied. While naming no percentage of reduction, the bill exposes all the articles embraced in the tariff schedules to a horizontal reduction. This, it is needless to say, might result in little or no harm to some industries and in destructive competition to others, and would be irrational, unscientific, and as objectionable as the Morrison horizontal reduction bill defeated in 1884. In addition, the bill as drawn seems to provide that when any country admits any article from the United States on an equality with similar articles from other countries, then all articles from such country shall be given the reduced rates by this country — an arrangement that cannot be intended and which no man can justify. Such a law would enable countries still maintaining high tariffs against our products to secure by some concession entrance to our markets at lower rates than Great Britain, a discrimination which that country would soon resent and which our sense of justice would not tolerate.

The latter bill maintains the present rates as the minimum and provides for an increase of 25 per cent on the products of countries discriminating against those of the United States, or which “fails to admit the products of the United States on terms as favorable as those accorded to any other nation.” This, of course, does not meet the approval of those who desire reductions in duties, and it is questionable whether Germany would be influenced by its passage to grant to us as favorable treatment as to the treaty countries. By the enactment of her new tariff she has shown no discrimination against the products of the United States; she will have in force March 1, 1906, one law applicable alike to

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the United States on terms as favorable as those accorded to any other nation, then there shall be levied and collected upon all articles the growth or product of the soil or industry of the country so discriminating against the products of the United States duties 25 per centum in excess of those now established by law; and on all such articles which by law are on the free list duties at the rate of 25 per centum ad valorem shall be levied and collected.”



all countries; she has increased her duties in response to demands from her producers, and the only countries which will enjoy modifications of her rates are those with which reciprocity treaties have been concluded. With these favored countries the United States cannot expect to stand, in view of our long established position, approved by decisions of the United States Supreme Court, that the most favored nation clause does not entitle countries other than the signatory powers to share in the benefits of such treaties. By enforcing the proposed law against countries not admitting our products "on terms as favorable as those accorded to any other nation," we would abandon our position respecting the consideration given in reciprocity treaties and we would be attempting to nullify the effect of all reciprocity treaties made by all countries, so far as our relations with them are concerned.

If the dual tariff is to be adopted, then it must be by this method, or by the way provided by the Senate bill, or by a general revision of the whole tariff for the purpose of determining the high and low duties in each schedule; and a general revision is not asked even by those demanding modifications.

In view of what has been said in the preceding pages is it not much more dignified for a great nation like the United States to pursue its own policy and not permit itself to be driven therefrom by the internal economic contests of any nation, especially before we know whether or not the results flowing from the action now feared will terminate in injury to our producers? Can we not and should we not take a profitable leaf from the experience of the Welsh makers of tin plate, whose industry, supposed by some to have been dealt a most disastrous, if not fatal, blow by the passage of the McKinley tariff, yielded an output in 1905 approximating 625,000 tons, practically the heaviest in its history, a result achieved notwithstanding the growth of the same industry in the United States to immense proportions, with an output the past year almost identical with that of the Welsh mills?

J. B. MCP.

## National Association of Wool Manufacturers.

### THE FORTY-FIRST ANNUAL MEETING.

THE forty-first annual meeting of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers was held at the Hotel Somerset on Wednesday, February 7, 1906. The meeting was called to order by the president, Mr. William Whitman. Among the members present were Messrs. Amasa Clarke, J. F. Maynard, Franklin W. Hobbs, Channing Smith, Frederic S. Clark, Benjamin Phipps, J. R. MacColl, Charles F. Murphy, Louis B. Goodall, Abiel J. Abbot, Charles A. Stott, J. N. Carpenter, J. W. Levering, John P. Wood, Charles H. Harding, A. Park Hammond, Francis T. Maxwell, Walter Erben, William C. Greene, Charles B. Rockwell, C. W. Leonard, H. F. Wilson, George M. Bassett, William Bloodgood, and others.

On motion, the reading of the minutes of the last meeting was omitted, the same having been published in the Bulletin, and no corrections having been suggested.

The report of the treasurer, Mr. Benjamin Phipps, was read and accepted. The showing made was received with marked approval. It was accepted and placed on file.

The secretary read his annual report, which was accepted and ordered to be printed.

On motion of Mr. Charles H. Harding it was resolved that that part of the secretary's report in which reciprocity and the new German tariff were discussed be printed as a pamphlet, with the endorsement of the Association and sent to the Secretary of State, each United States senator and member of the House of Representatives.

On motion of Mr. Charles A. Stott it was voted that the portion relating to customs decisions be referred to the executive committee.

Mr. Charles H. Harding, in offering the annexed preambles and resolutions, referred to the recent report issued by the Merchants' Association of New York, in which changes in the customs administrative laws were recommended, as

one of the most deceitful pamphlets ever presented to the public. The resolutions were as follows :

*Whereas*, The Merchants' Association of New York City has recently issued and transmitted to the Hon. Leslie M. Shaw, Secretary of the Treasury, a report of a committee on revenue laws and customs service ; and

*Whereas*, In the said report is printed a list of a "general committee on revision of the customs laws, 1900," in which list appears the name of the former secretary of this Association and also the name of one of its executive committee ; and

*Whereas*, These gentlemen never acted with either of the said committees, have never been consulted concerning the report, knew nothing of its contents until printed, and do not approve of many of the proposals therein contained ; and

*Whereas*, The reader of said report, prepared by a sub-committee, is led to believe that the recommendations and amendments proposed therein have been submitted to and received the approval of the general committee ; and

*Whereas*, From the appearance in the list of the general committee of the names of the former secretary of the Association and also a member of the executive committee, it might be concluded that this Association favored the said report ; and

*Whereas*, Among the many changes in the customs administrative act, suggested by this report, are several whose purpose is to enable the foreign exporter to declare in the invoice the market value or wholesale price thereof "for exportation at the time of exportation to the United States," and the consignor to declare the price named to be that which the manufacturer or owner making the declaration expects to obtain, and is willing to receive for the merchandise from the consignee thereof ; and

*Whereas*, It is our belief, if such alteration in the customs administrative law should be endorsed by the Secretary of the Treasury and accepted by the Congress, that a wide door for gross undervaluations would be opened, for there is no value for foreign exportation ; that the Government would lose its just revenue ; that the honest importer would be driven from business, and the domestic manufacturers would be subjected to unfair competition ; and

*Whereas*, Calling to mind the unsatisfactory condition of affairs two decades and more ago under the old laws, and the much

better condition since 1890, especially since 1897, and believing such changes as proposed would bring a return of former and worse conditions, thereby nullifying the results of a twenty-year struggle for better things ; therefore

RESOLVED, That the members of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, at their annual meeting, held February 7, 1906, declare themselves as unalterably opposed to the changes in the customs laws indicated in the preambles hereto, and they urge all bodies having similar aims to present a united opposition to changes which threaten loss to the United States Treasury, dire consequences to domestic industries, and which, if enacted into law, will make of this country a dumping ground for the surplus production of the manufacturing nations of Europe.

RESOLVED, That a copy of these resolutions, signed by the president and secretary of the Association, be forwarded to the Secretary of the Treasury.

Mr. John N. Carpender, whose name appears as one of the Merchants' Association Committee, declared that he had no recollection of ever having been called to attend a meeting of the committee, that he never had been consulted concerning the report or apprised of its contents, and that he was emphatically and decidedly opposed to the changes therein recommended. The secretary read a letter of similar import from the Hon. S. N. D. North, whose name also appears as one of the general committee.

The motion was adopted unanimously.

Mr. John P. Wood, of Philadelphia, offered the following resolutions and moved their adoption :

RESOLVED, That the National Association of Wool Manufacturers reaffirms its pronounced opposition to the negotiation and ratification of reciprocity treaties by which diplomacy is substituted for legislation, a position long since taken by this organization and one strengthened and justified by the lapse of time.

RESOLVED, That we favor tariff revision when it shall be required to promote the prosperity of the American people. We believe that the economic policy of this country should be governed by the interests of its productive industries, which give to the country its wealth, to its labor remunerative wages, and to

its people the comforts of life. Commercial and general prosperity must inevitably accompany prosperous agriculture, mining, and manufactures. The unexampled prosperous conditions in these three great productive industries and in commerce now existing in the United States render immediate tariff revision undesirable.

The motion was adopted.

Mr. Franklin W. Hobbs, for Mr. Amasa Clarke, who was temporarily absent from the room, reported for the committee on nominations a list of officers for the ensuing year. Upon motion the secretary was instructed to cast one ballot for the names as presented, which he did, and the following were declared by the president as duly elected :

#### PRESIDENT.

WILLIAM WHITMAN . . . . . Boston, Mass.

#### VICE-PRESIDENTS.

CHARLES H. HARDING . . . . . Philadelphia, Pa.

WILLIAM M. WOOD . . . . . Boston, Mass.

FREDERIC S. CLARK . . . . . North Billerica, Mass.

#### TREASURER.

BENJAMIN PHIPPS . . . . . Boston, Mass.

#### SECRETARY.

JOHN BRUCE MCPHERSON . . . . . Boston, Mass.

#### EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

JOHN N. CARPENDER . . . . . New Brunswick, N.J.

JAMES DOBSON . . . . . Philadelphia, Pa.

JOSEPH METCALF . . . . . Holyoke, Mass.

ABIEL J. ABBOT . . . . . Graniteville, Mass.

JOHN P. WOOD . . . . . Philadelphia, Pa.

WILLIAM C. GREENE . . . . . Peace Dale, R.I.

CHARLES A. STOTT . . . . . Lowell, Mass.

THOMAS OAKES . . . . . Bloomfield, N.J.

WILLIAM BLOODGOOD . . . . . New York, N.Y.

JOHN HOPEWELL . . . . . Boston, Mass.

GEORGE E. KUNHARDT . . . . . Lawrence, Mass.

A. PARK HAMMOND . . . . . Rockville, Conn.



J. R. MACCOLL . . . . .	Pawtucket, R.I.
FRANCIS T. MAXWELL . . . . .	Rockville, Conn.
J. F. MAYNARD . . . . .	Utica, N.Y.

STANDING COMMITTEES.

*Finance.*

AMASA CLARKE . . . . .	Boston, Mass.
LOUIS B. GOODALL . . . . .	Sanford, Me.
PAUL R. HOLDEN . . . . .	West Concord, N.H.
FREDERICK C. FLETCHER . . . . .	Providence, R.I.
C. W. LEONARD . . . . .	Boston, Mass.

*Statistics.*

H. G. B. FISHER . . . . .	North Adams, Mass.
A. ALBERT SACK . . . . .	Providence, R.I.
H. A. FRANCIS . . . . .	Pittsfield, Mass.
WM. M. CHASE . . . . .	Leominster, Mass.
N. F. GREELEY . . . . .	Boston, Mass.

*Raw Material.*

A. J. ROOT . . . . .	Cohoes, N.Y.
GORDON DOBSON . . . . .	Pittsfield, Me.
WM. R. CORDINGLEY . . . . .	Boston, Mass.
CHAS. B. ROCKWELL . . . . .	Bristol, R.I.
GEO. W. BENEDICT . . . . .	Boston, Mass.

*Machinery.*

CHAS. H. HUTCHINS . . . . .	Worcester, Mass.
B. F. MELLOR . . . . .	Plymouth, Mass.
F. P. SHAW . . . . .	Lowell, Mass.
GEORGE G. DAVIS . . . . .	North Andover, Mass.
GEORGE M. BASSETT . . . . .	Worcester, Mass.

There being no further business the meeting adjourned.

RECEPTION AND DINNER.

The annual meeting of the Association was followed by a reception, and a dinner in the large ballroom of the Hotel Somerset. Those in the receiving party were President Whitman, Miss Gertrude Beeks, of New York, Mr. Leslie W. Miller, of Philadelphia, and Mr. H. F. J. Porter, of New York. The presentations were made by a reception com-

mittee consisting of Messrs. Frederic S. Clark, Amasa Clarke, William C. Greene, Charles B. Rockwell, and Franklin W. Hobbs.

The following is the list of those present. Those seated at the speakers' table were :

Louis B. Goodall, Goodall Worsted Co., Sanford, Me.  
 John P. Wood, Wm. Wood & Co., Philadelphia.  
 Abiel J. Abbot, Abbot Worsted Co., Graniteville, Mass.  
 John N. Carpenter, Norfolk and New Brunswick Hosiery Co., New Brunswick, N.J.  
 Frederic S. Clark, Talbot Mills, North Billerica, Mass.  
 C. H. Hutchins, Crompton & Knowles Loom Works, Worcester, Mass.  
 Wm. Bloodgood, American Felt Co., New York.  
 J. R. MacColl, Lorraine Manufacturing Co., Pawtucket, R.I.  
 Francis T. Maxwell, Hockanum Co., Rockville, Conn.  
 Miss Gertrude Beeks, Secretary Welfare Department, Civic Federation, New York.  
 WM. WHITMAN, President, and President Arlington Mills, Boston.  
 Leslie W. Miller, Principal Pennsylvania Museum and School of Industrial Art, Philadelphia.  
 H. F. J. Porter, M.E., New York.  
 Charles H. Harding, Erben-Harding Co., Philadelphia.  
 Albert Clarke, Secretary Home Market Club, Boston.  
 A. Hun Berry, Boston.  
 Wm. C. Greene, Peace Dale Manufacturing Co., Peace Dale, R.I.  
 Chas. A. Stott, Belvidere Woolen Co., Lowell, Mass.  
 J. F. Maynard, Globe Woolen Co., Utica, N.Y.  
 Galen C. Moses, Worumbo Manufacturing Co., Bath, Me.  
 Frank Hopewell, Sanford Mills, Boston.

Those at the other tables were :

Samuel G. Adams, Brown & Adams, Boston.  
 John Allen, Assabet Mills, Maynard, Mass.  
 T. W. Andrews, Wm. Wood & Co., Philadelphia.  
 J. D. Armitage, Arlington Mills, Lawrence, Mass.  
 Louis Baer, Eisemann Bros., Boston.  
 James R. Bailey, Jr., American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 Eben L. Baker, Parker, Wilder & Co., Boston.  
 H. O. Barnes, "Textile Manufacturers Record," New York.  
 Charles T. Barry, Arlington Mills, Boston.  
 G. B. Bartlett, American Woolen Co., Providence, R.I.  
 Wm. J. Battison, National Association of Wool Manufacturers, Boston.  
 George M. Bassett, Johnson & Bassett, Worcester, Mass.

C. F. Bankart, Harding, Whitman & Co., Boston.  
 George W. Benedict, Benedict & Livingstone, Boston.  
 Everett M. Berry, Parker, Wilder & Co., Boston.  
 John H. Binns, Arlington Mills, Lawrence, Mass.  
 William Bloodgood, American Felt Co., New York.  
 Clarence J. Bodfish, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 Charles E. Bond, Hartford, Conn.  
 Charles S. Bottomley, New England Co., Rockville, Conn.  
 Charles A. Boyce, Boyce & Paige, Boston.  
 C. M. Boyd, Jeremiah Williams & Co., Boston.  
 H. P. Bradford, Brown & Adams, Boston.  
 Ernest Braithwaite, Harding, Whitman & Co., Boston.  
 Jacob F. Brown, Brown & Adams, Boston.  
 John C. Burke, Shaw Machine Co., Lowell, Mass.  
 A. S. Byers, American Woolen Co., Providence, R.I.  
 E. B. Carleton, E. B. Carleton & Co., Boston.  
 F. H. Carpenter, Weybosset Mills, Providence, R.I.  
 Duncan D. Chaplin, Hockanum Association, New York.  
 William A. Clark, Ray Fabric Mills, Franklin, Mass.  
 Richard B. Clark, R. B. Clark & Co., Boston.  
 Amasa Clarke, Winthrop Mills Co., Boston.  
 L. M. Coates, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 Edmund Corcoran, Fitchburg & Beoli Mills, Fitchburg, Mass.  
 W. F. Corne, Atlas Linen Co., Meredith, N.H.  
 Charles F. Cross, Chas. F. Cross & Co., Boston.  
 E. M. Cross, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 W. A. Currier, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 G. K. Cutler, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 A. O. Davidson, Ætna Mills, Watertown, Mass.  
 George Otis Draper, Draper Co., Hopedale, Mass.  
 Carl H. Dresher, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 Ervin S. Dunn, Dunn Worsted Mills, Woonsocket, R.I.  
 Andrew H. Dwelly, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 W. H. Dwelly, Jr., Treasurer, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 A. H. Eddy, Saranac Mills, Blackstone, Mass.  
 Frank Edwards, Barre Wool Combing Co., South Barre, Mass.  
 A. C. Emery, Goodhue, Studley & Emery, Boston.  
 George G. Emery, Sanford Mills, Sanford, Me.  
 Walter Erben, Erben-Harding Co., Philadelphia.  
 M. E. Evans, "Textile Manufacturers Journal," New York.  
 C. H. Fairbanks, Eisemann Bros., Boston.  
 L. H. Fitch, Moore Spinning Co., Boston.  
 E. G. Garcia, E. G. Garcia & Co., Albuquerque, N.M.  
 William G. Gerry, Parker, Wilder & Co., Boston.  
 Arthur Gill, Dewey, Gould & Co., Boston.

- E. A. Gordon, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 H. F. Gould, Lombard Machine Co., Worcester, Mass.  
 C. B. Gregory, Forstmann & Co., New York.  
 Joseph R. Grundy, Wm. H. Grundy & Co., Bristol, Pa.  
 William E. Hall, Shaw Stocking Co., Lowell, Mass.  
 Nelson A. Hallett, Jr., Harding, Whitman & Co., Boston.  
 F. W. Hallowell, Hallowell, Donald & Co., Boston.  
 A. Park Hammond, New England Co., Rockville, Conn.  
 Geo. B. Hammond, New England Co., Rockville, Conn.  
 Charles L. Harding, Harding, Whitman & Co., Boston.  
 Louis B. Harding, Boston.  
 George W. Harris, National and Providence Worsted Mills, Providence, R.I.  
 William D. Hartshorne, Arlington Mills, Lawrence, Mass.  
 John H. Harwood, Geo. S. Harwood & Son, Boston.  
 Sydney Harwood, Geo. S. Harwood & Son, Boston.  
 W. M. Hastings, Arlington Mills, Lawrence, Mass.  
 H. E. Hayden, Boston.  
 Fred A. Hill, Norwalk Mills Co., Norwalk, Conn.  
 Jno. R. Hinchliffe, Peace Dale Manufacturing Co., Peace Dale, R.I.  
 Franklin W. Hobbs, Arlington Mills, Boston.  
 Prentiss Howard, Chase Mills, Webster, Mass.  
 C. T. Hoyer, American Woolen Co., Providence, R.I.  
 Francis Hoyer, Nasonville Woolen Co., Nasonville, R.I.  
 O. L. Humphrey, Harding, Whitman & Co., Boston.  
 E. E. Hussey, Sanford Mills, Boston.  
 Edwin J. Hylan, Musketaquid Mills, Lowell.  
 Samuel Hyslop, Saxony Worsted Mills, Newton, Mass.  
 R. O. Ingram, Shaw Machine Co., Lowell, Mass.  
 H. C. Jealous, Yarn Department, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 C. G. Johnson, Norfolk Woolen Co., Franklin, Mass.  
 E. S. Johnson, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 L. A. Johnson, Luce & Manning, Boston.  
 W. E. Jones, Hallowell, Donald & Co., Boston.  
 H. E. Kaley, Morse-Kaley Worsted Mills, Milford, N.H.  
 Henry E. Kirk, Beaver Brook Mill, Collinsville, Mass.  
 W. T. King, Wood Worsted Mills, Lawrence, Mass.  
 Henry G. Kittredge, "Textile American," Boston.  
 J. D. Knight, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 L. J. Knowles, Crompton & Knowles Loom Works, Worcester, Mass.  
 A. Koshland, J. Koshland & Co., Boston.  
 Walter M. Lamont, Wood Worsted Mills, Lawrence, Mass.  
 William M. Lasbury, Beoli Mills, Fitchburg, Mass.  
 E. F. Leland, Brown & Adams, Boston.  
 Charles W. Leonard, Onoko Mills, Boston.

- J. W. Levering, Erben-Harding Co., Philadelphia.  
 H. Liebmann, Hecht, Liebmann & Co., Boston.  
 James Lister, Centredale Worsted Mills, Centredale, R.I.  
 Wm. D. Livermore, Chemist, American Woolen Co., Lawrence, Mass.  
 Thomas S. Lockwood, Parker, Wilder & Co., Boston.  
 Henry G. Lord, "Textile World Record," Boston.  
 William Luce, Luce & Manning, Boston.  
 William Maxwell, Springville Co., Rockville, Conn.  
 J. S. Mercer, Arlington Mills, Lawrence, Mass.  
 J. H. Merrill, Namquit Worsted Mills, Bristol, R.I.  
 W. H. Mertz, L. C. Chase & Co., Boston.  
 John Bruce McPherson, Secretary, National Association of Wool Manufacturers, Boston.  
 Oliver Moses, Worumbo Manufacturing Co., Lisbon Falls, Me.  
 Charles F. Murphy, Hope Worsted Mills, Louisville, Ky.  
 A. W. Noone, J. Noone's Sons' Co., Peterboro, N.H.  
 Wm. R. Noone, W. R. Noone & Co., Boston.  
 Wm. W. Ollendorff, Waste Department, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 E. D. Paige, Wool Department, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 Sidney B. Paine, General Electric Co., Boston.  
 J. Earle Parker, Harding, Whitman & Co., Boston.  
 C. C. Parsons, Parsons Bros., Boston.  
 H. J. Potter, Purchasing Agent, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 C. Eaton Pierce, Arlington Mills, Boston.  
 F. H. Putnam, Hecht, Liebmann & Co., Boston.  
 A. F. Raymond, "Fiber and Fabric," Boston.  
 J. C. Ramsay, Jr., Electrician, American Woolen Co., Lawrence, Mass.  
 Charles A. R. Ray, Norfolk Woolen Co., Franklin, Mass.  
 William F. Ray, Ray Fabric Mills, Franklin, Mass.  
 Seth M. Richards, Dexter Richards' Sons' Co., Newport, N.H.  
 Wm. H. Richardson, Thomas H. Ball, Philadelphia.  
 Samuel Rindge, Parker, Wilder & Co., Boston.  
 Charles B. Rockwell, Cranston Worsted Mills, Bristol, R.I.  
 Bradley M. Rockwood, Norfolk Woolen Co., Franklin, Mass.  
 George S. Rogers, Carter & Rogers, Lebanon, N.H.  
 C. A. Root, Uxbridge Worsted Co., Uxbridge, Mass.  
 Alfred Sagar, Arlington Mills, Lawrence, Mass.  
 Charles F. Sawyer, Sawyer Mills, Dover, N.H.  
 Geo. Schofield, Moosup Mills, Moosup, Conn.  
 W. A. Shattuck, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 Frederick P. Shaw, Shaw Machine Co., Lowell, Mass.  
 B. A. Sherman, Shaw Machine Co., Lowell, Mass.  
 F. G. Sherman, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 S. E. Shuman, A. Shuman & Co., Boston.  
 H. Carleton Slack, W. H. H. Slack & Bro., Springfield, Vt.



B. F. Smith, Jr., Assistant Treasurer, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 Channing Smith, Chapel Mills Manufacturing Co., Cherry Valley, Mass.  
 George W. Smith, American Woolen Co., Providence, R.I.  
 C. E. Spaulding, Shaw Machine Co., Lowell, Mass.  
 R. L. Stevens, Harding, Whitman & Co., Boston.  
 Ferdinand Straus, Leopold Morse & Co., Boston  
 R. L. Studley, Goodhue, Studley & Emery, Boston.  
 O. L. Suenderhauf, Bay State Mill, Lowell, Mass.  
 William H. Sweatt, City Mills, City Mills, Mass.  
 David A. Sykes, Springville Manufacturing Co., Rockville, Conn.  
 James A. Syme, Ray's Mills, Franklin, Mass.  
 Joseph F. Talbot, Talbot Mills, North Billerica, Mass.  
 William H. Taylor, Roxbury Carpet Co., Boston.  
 F. G. Thomas, Fitchburg Mills, Fitchburg, Mass.  
 William H. Tobey, Parker, Wilder & Co., Boston.  
 E. H. Tryon, San Francisco, Cal.  
 M. M. Upson, Hockanum Co., Rockville, Conn.  
 Arthur D. Veasey, Groveland Mills, South Groveland, Mass.  
 G. H. Waterman, Harding, Whitman & Co., Boston.  
 W. W. Weeden, Manton Mills, Manton, R.I.  
 Franklin H. Wentworth, Boston.  
 Thomas J. West, Norwalk Mills, Winnipauk, Conn.  
 C. A. Whitknact, Shaw Machine Co., Lowell, Mass.  
 Wm. S. Whitney, Supervising Engineer, A. W. Co., Lawrence, Mass.  
 P. C. Wiggin, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 A. M. Williams, American Woolen Co., Boston.  
 G. B. Williams, Jeremiah Williams & Co., Boston.  
 H. F. Wilson, Ballard Vale Mills Co., Ballard Vale, Mass.  
 Joseph Wing, Dewey, Gould & Co., Boston.  
 Otis P. Wood, Puritan Mills, Plymouth, Mass.  
 William M. Wood, President, American Woolen Co., Boston.

After the dinner was served President Whitman rapped for order and delivered the following address :

#### ADDRESS OF PRESIDENT WHITMAN.

It is a pleasant duty to extend, in behalf of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, at this, its forty-first annual banquet, a most hearty welcome to the guests who honor the Association by their presence, and especially to those who are to favor us with addresses.

I take great pleasure in congratulating the members of this organization and all those engaged in the wool manufacture and

its kindred industries on the prosperous year that has just closed. It has not always been the case when we have met together on occasions of this kind that such congratulations were in order, but I think the year 1905 may be classed as one of the most successful years that we have had in the wool manufacture during the last forty years, or since the close of our great Civil War; and it is encouraging to manufacturers that at the outset of the new year present conditions warrant us in expecting that this prosperity is to continue.

#### GROWTH OF WOOL MANUFACTURE IN TWENTY YEARS.

In my remarks to you one year ago I stated that there was a mistaken impression in the public mind that there had not been so great an advance in the wool manufacture in this country as in other textile industries, while, in fact, the wool manufacturers of the United States supplied a larger proportion of the wool manufactures consumed in this country than either the cotton or silk manufacturers supplied of the total consumption of their products. The statistics of the imports for consumption of the manufactures of wool, for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1905, have recently been published and, by comparing the imports of the fiscal year 1886 with those of 1905, I wish to direct your attention to the immense growth that has taken place in the wool manufacture during these last two decades. The figures are interesting and encouraging. The foreign value of our total imports of wool manufactures in 1905 was only \$18,021,041.68, while the foreign value of our total importations for 1886 was the large sum of \$40,536,509.38, showing a decline in the twenty years of about 56 per cent. In the meantime, the population of the United States has increased about 47 per cent; in other words, our present population is estimated at about 84,000,000 against 57,000,000 in 1886. Thus the wool manufacturers have increased their products to an extent that enables them not only to provide for the increased population of about 47 per cent or 27,000,000 of people, but in addition to this has enabled them to displace foreign importations to the extent of about 56 per cent.

At the present time the wool manufacturers of the United States have practically the control of their home market. They themselves supply the 84,000,000 of people with inappreciable competition from outsiders; and, in this connection, permit me to say that it is the only really valuable market accessible to the

wool manufacturer of the United States to-day; for, so far as I have been able to learn, those countries in the world which are the chief consumers of woollen clothing also rank among the chief manufacturers of wool. Consequently, there is no non-manufacturing country for our domestic manufacturers to depend upon as a market for woollen goods, even under the most ideally favorable conditions of manufacture. It may fairly be said that the only market, speaking from a practical standpoint, for the American wool manufacturer is his home market, and this, as I have already stated, he controls, and this control is relatively greater in cloths and men's wearing apparel than in other branches of the industry.

#### THE NEED FOR THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

It was my privilege, when we met before, to give an outline of the work of our organization during the preceding forty years of its existence, a work which I believe you will agree with me has been most beneficial to the wool industry. The need of such an organization as the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, it seems to me, is greater than ever. The foreign importers and merchants, seeing their trade with the United States diminishing, are naturally exerting, and are going to exert, their best efforts to retain all the business it may be possible for them to retain. They are on the defensive, and their efforts in this struggle for trade existence in this market are not alone along legitimate lines, but not infrequently along lines that are questionable. They are attempting to negative the intent of our customs laws by technical evasions. Such attempts have recently been made, and the cases for final decisions on merits have been referred to the Supreme Court, which is the highest and final tribunal.

#### COMMERCIAL ORGANIZATIONS IN ANTAGONISM.

Commercial organizations in different parts of the country have ever been inimical to our productive industries. This is not easy for me to understand, for I believe it to be a fundamental truth that it has been the productive industries that have given to the country its wealth, to its labor remunerative wages, and to its people the comforts of life, and that commercial and general prosperity inevitably accompany prosperous agriculture, mining, and manufactures. It seems as if the true interests of commercial organizations lie in harmonious and friendly coöperation

with industrial organizations, rather than in unfriendly, if not hostile, opposition.

One of the most hostile movements of such an organization is that covered by the reciprocity movement of 1905, which, at a conference held in Chicago, culminated in the formation of a permanent organization under the name of the "American Reciprocal Tariff League," which seeks to secure by legislation the supposed benefits it was unable to secure by treaties, and to do this through the adoption of a maximum-minimum tariff, the present tariff to be the basis of the maximum and reductions to be made with all nations not discriminating against American products. This movement was largely fostered by the fears of western exporters of beef and agricultural products regarding the new German tariff law which is soon to go into operation. This subject has been fully and ably treated by the secretary of our Association, and I fully endorse his conclusion that these fears are for the most part groundless, that as a matter of fact the producers of the United States have nothing to fear from this new German tariff. In his language:

"Is it not much more dignified for a great nation like the United States to pursue its own policy and not permit itself to be driven therefrom by the internal economic contests of any nation, especially before we know whether or not the results flowing from the action now feared will terminate in injury to our producers? Can we not and should we not take a profitable leaf from the experience of the Welsh makers of tin plate, whose industry, supposed by some to have been dealt a most disastrous, if not fatal, blow by the passage of the McKinley tariff, yielded an output in 1905 approximating 625,000 tons, practically the heaviest in its history, a result achieved notwithstanding the growth of the same industry in the United States to immense proportions, with an output the past year almost identical with that of the Welsh mills?"

#### CHANGES IN CUSTOMS LAWS WILL BE OPPOSED.

Another dangerous movement with which you may be familiar is that of the Merchants' Association of New York in a report dated January 27, 1906, and made by its "Committee on Revenue Laws and Customs Service," addressed to the Hon. Leslie M. Shaw, Secretary of the Treasury, advocating changes in the customs administrative act of June 10, 1890, as amended by the act of July 24, 1897, and entitled "An Act to Simplify the Laws in



Relation to the Collection of the Revenues." These proposed changes are inimical to our industry, and will be strongly opposed by our organization.

At our last banquet I stated that, "We may feel reasonably sure that the present wool and woollen tariff will remain the law of the land for some years to come." The course of events during the last twelve months leads me to believe that this prediction was well founded, and despite various movements in favor of tariff revision I do not look for such in the near future.

The work of our Association is to protect the interests of our wool manufactures and kindred industries against the action of organizations that are inimical to them. In this it has been eminently successful in the past; we hope to continue this success in the future.

I not only hope, but believe, fellow manufacturers, that the year 1906 will prove to be a prosperous one to every branch of our industry.

At the conclusion of his remarks Mr. Whitman in introducing the first speaker of the evening said:

A week ago to-night I attended the annual banquet of the Ohio Society in the city of New York. I do not know that Ohio men are any prouder of their State than Massachusetts men or New Hampshire or Vermont men are of theirs, but the tone of the meeting would lead a stranger to believe that all that was great and good in the United States had its origin in the State of Ohio. But it is pretty hard for any one State to claim preëminence over another; I apprehend that Ohio is possibly indebted to Massachusetts for what she has contributed to it, as are a good many of our sister States.

The gentleman who is now to address you has been for more than a quarter of a century the Principal of the Pennsylvania Museum and School of Industrial Art, but he is not a native of Pennsylvania. He went from Massachusetts, though I find he was born in Vermont. There are quite a number of Vermont gentlemen sitting at these tables. You are all familiar with the fact that the Philadelphia Textile School was the first school of its kind established in this



country, and that it was an outgrowth of the Pennsylvania Museum and School of Industrial Art.

It gives me very great pleasure to have the privilege of introducing to you the Principal of that institution, Mr. Leslie W. Miller. (Applause.)

SPEECH OF MR. LESLIE W. MILLER.

MR. CHAIRMAN, MEMBERS OF THE ASSOCIATION, FELLOW GUESTS: AS I sat here listening to that instructive address which we have just had the pleasure of hearing, I could only think of the remark of a little Japanese — one of those brilliant men who have sought our shores for instruction and that larger outlook which American influences bring — when he met in Japan one of his fellow students from Harvard. The American asked him how he felt in the old country, how the little life that he was leading there seemed after the big things and the big opportunities of America. The Japanese replied, "Yes, I know it is a good deal different, there are lots of things we haven't got; but, I tell you, it seemed awfully good to hear the old lingo again."

Twenty-six years ago I followed Benjamin Franklin to Philadelphia, for the larger opportunity which its atmosphere promotes. (Laughter.) And I have lived for twenty-six years among that peace-loving and silence-loving people. (Laughter.) I have learned to love their quiet, earnest ways. I thoroughly believe that among the prayers that ascend to the Throne of Grace to-night, the silent ones — which are the only ones we hear (if you will permit me to use an Irishism) — are the most welcome. We do not cultivate speech out there, but we do things all the same. We are not worth a cent at spinning yarns, but we have a Weaver or two of whom we are rather proud, and I appreciate and believe in the good qualities of those with whom I have cast my lot on the banks of the Delaware; but all the same it does seem good to be back among the Yankees and to hear the old lingo again. (Laughter and applause.)

I have listened with unalloyed pleasure to all that your president has so well said, and I am thankful for the opportunity to tell you how glad I am to be here to speak, for schoolmasters, until very recently, never had a chance to speak to a body of men like this. I am proud and happy to stand here as the representative of a class that has been ignored too long in connection with the discussion of things on which the prosperity of nations so largely depends.

I count it the privilege of my life to have been in some, however humble, way connected with the awakening which the historian of this age will certainly associate with its proudest triumphs. The most significant sign of the times is the awakening of the manufacturers and pro-

The nation's  
power.

ducers of the country to a consciousness of the fact that the springs of power, the sources of energy, which count for most in our national development even along strictly industrial lines, are largely educational. People seem never to have thought of this before; they are thinking of it now.

I know very little about wool; you will excuse me if I do not speak very narrowly to wool men alone. I have done my share, perhaps, of wool gathering; I have had a certain amount of wool pulled over my own eyes from time to time (laughter) and perhaps I have done my share in trying to pull wool over the eyes of other people. But I have never succeeded very well, and I shall not be remembered by any of those who know me, or hear me to-night, for my success in that direction. I know very little about wool, but I believe in American industry, and I hope and pray for American prosperity, and I believe, as your president has said so much better than I can possibly hope to say, that the real source of a nation's strength is not its buying and selling capacity, but its power to produce, its power to make, its power to do, and that in cultivating this power we are doing the best service that it is possible to do for the land in which we live and the people of whom we are a part. (Applause.)

I am not here to plead for the central principle of the commanding importance of technical or industrial education as a factor in that kind of progress, and a promoter of that class of interests which this Association has been organized to serve. That battle has already been won, and that principle may fairly be regarded as already established. The attention paid to the subject in all current educational discussion, and the generous provision that is being made on every hand for practical instruction in certain typical forms of craftsmanship, either as features of general education, or in special schools, of which the textile schools are the most perfect examples, are proofs of the fact that we have made up our minds that, to a considerable extent, at least, the industrial efficiency of the rising generation is something for which the schoolmaster is to be made responsible. But if we have accepted the principle there is still a good deal of room for discussion regarding methods and the nature and extent of the possible development of a movement that is still so new.

Do we, for one thing, fully realize the importance of industrial efficiency in the individual workman or operative, and has not the sense of its significance been greatly lost in our absorption in developing and extending the triumphs of mechanical invention, and perfecting the organization of our complex and delicate industrial systems? That all this specialization and elaboration of detail; this subdivision of labor and substitution of mechanical appliances for human care and intelligence has tended to minimize our dependence on the individual workman is so familiar a commonplace that its repetition here would be inexcusable, except

Do we recognize the extent of possible development?

for the purpose of emphasizing the fact that this elimination of the man in favor of the machine is the thing by which we are most given to measuring our progress, and the ideal in whose pursuit we are most eager. I am not questioning the soundness of any economic principle involved, but it will not do to forget certain facts that are fundamental to any understanding of the case. In the first place, all excellence of design is dependent upon intelligent grasp of the essentials of good workmanship. You can no more have good design of any kind divorced from insight into the mysteries of craftsmanship than you can have intelligent guidance of any other kind, in commerce and finance, for example, from those who have not had practice and experience in actual contact with this kind of work.

The fundamental idea that underlies all educational manual work, call it by whatever name you please, — technical, trade, industrial, or what not, — is this: ideas are developed by the brain speaking and expressing itself through the hand. To develop this form of expression is to cultivate the source of all true power in design. Think for a moment what part of the work of the world is done by machines which, after all, can only repeat and multiply, not really create at all. How eagerly do we go, as I went to-day, for guidance and inspiration to such museums as that beautiful one yonder? What help for our work is there in the remains of those old times whose methods were so simple and so primitive? They mean this, that if it were not for the ideas, for the artistic feeling, for the creative power that those old things represent, your modern production would be flat, stale, and unprofitable indeed. It means that those old fabrics that were wrought by the simplest methods, by the unaided fingers of the workman who designed them, have something about them which is not only inimitable, but which, with all our mechanical invention, we cannot quite reproduce. It means that the main source of inspiration in modern design, the main stock of ideas on which we draw to help us out and keep before us standards of the things best worth doing, are the things in which the simplest possible methods have sufficed to express an idea. And the best that our modern invention can do is to translate these ideas into something applicable to our present methods of reproduction. Let us not forget, then, our dependence upon the simple methods of hand-work. They are the center and source of all power in design. And if there were no reason for its existence except this, the trade school will be worth all that it will cost.

But this is not all, by any means. Not only design, but workmanship must be developed, by ways that are not possible in the modern highly organized, highly subdivided shop and mill. And for this workmanship, too, we have learned to look to the organized school, of which, as the characteristic modern institution, we are so proud, and on which

Our dependence upon methods of hand-work.

The school develops workmanship.

we depend more and more every day. That men in high places, industrially speaking, do not always sympathize with this view is, I am afraid, only too true. I visited not long ago one of those big establishments, not a thousand miles from Boston, of whose enormous production we are so proud, and was told with a great deal of pride by the superintendent who showed me through, of his success in perfecting a system by which he was able to use seventy-five-cent men, where he formerly used men who were worth a dollar and a quarter. I was saddened by that kind of illustration of what did duty for progress. Gentlemen, that is not progress at all. Supplant men by machinery and better organization all you like, but let the men that you keep be better than those that you drop. (Applause.) One man in place of ten, if you please, but let the one who is left be the best man. If this superintendent had told me that he was using dollar-and-a-quarter men where formerly he had used seventy-five-cent men, and one man in place of three of the poorer sort I would have thrown up my hat as high as any one in honor of his progress. But what he did say was to me inexpressibly sad, because while I believe in the machine, while I glory as much as any man in its development and perfection, I think more of the man than of the machine that displaces him. My view of the matter is that along with the development of the machine, the man behind it should develop, too. As it grows complicated and delicate his powers should be developed, his sensibilities quickened, his faculties exercised and trained to ever higher and finer performance.

We seem to be pretty well agreed that the agency through which a large part of this training can be given most economically as well as most effectively is the school, and it only remains to consider by what methods this efficiency and economy are most likely to be attained.

Some terms  
defined.

And just here allow me to say a word or two by way of definition and explanation of the terms we are obliged to use. Strictly speaking, three terms are in more or less common use to describe different phases of the kind of education which I have in mind. We speak of industrial schools, of trade schools, and of technical schools, applying the first name almost exclusively to a class of schools in which manual labor is associated with a penal or reformatory purpose; the second to school-shops whose pupils are rather apprentices than students; and reserving the last for schools of college grade, devoted rather to fundamental principles and theories than to the practice of craftsmanship in any of its many forms. Now, although my subject is technical education, I do not wish to be understood as advocating the claims of this grade of instruction as contrasted with those of the trade school, or even of the industrial school, if the stigma which has so unfortunately been attached to this last name could be removed. I do not believe that technical education in this restricted sense of



the word is the one thing on which industrial leadership depends. I regard that of the trade school as quite as important, and in speaking of technical education I wish to be understood as using the words in the larger and more inclusive sense of designating all instruction which is concerned directly with the actual doing of practical work in the arts. I regard the trade school as just as necessary as the technical college, and in anything that I may say to-night regarding the claims of practical education, I wish to be understood as referring to one of them as much as to the other. One is concerned with the training of designers, masters, superintendents, etc., who direct the work of others; the other is devoted to the needs of the man behind the loom or the anvil, who must be reached and helped and inspired before anything like fine or high performance is to be expected from him. Moreover, it is from the ranks of the workers that the masters are recruited, and to fail to make to them the appeal that can only be made effectively through the trade school is to miss the main chance of accomplishing anything worth while.

The higher technical education must be provided to the extent that there is a genuine and legitimate demand for it, but it must

Higher technical education is of college grade.

be remembered that such work is of the college grade and can be profitably followed only by men who can bring to it good minds already well trained in preparatory schools of at least the High School grade.

Such men when graduated from a course covering at least three years at a technical college will be fitted for positions of commanding importance as far as any school can do this fitting, but their number will always be comparatively small, and the multiplication of institutions devoted to this grade of highly specialized instruction is something that can very easily be overdone. On the other hand, education that will reach the operative, strengthen his hands and enlarge his powers, cannot possibly be overdone, but the manner of presenting it must be something quite different from that employed in the technical college.

The one is a college and must be treated like one. It should be located in a great center of population and culture where number-

The location of technical and trade schools.

less advantages and opportunities are afforded students which are quite outside the regular work of any class in which they may happen to be registered. The other must just as certainly be located in the very neighborhood of the mills and factories, and will naturally be conducted

mainly by means of evening classes, although the arrangement which is quite common in Europe of allowing apprentices to attend a trade school on certain afternoons might well be adopted here. Until something of this kind is done, it is manifestly absurd to expect wage-earners to attend day schools, and even if they could, it is evident that courses which they could profitably follow would have to be quite different from those required by the college grade of technical instruction. Let us not do less than full



justice to the claims of either class, but let us not confuse them or lose our bearings for the subject as a whole.

It is not too much to say that this confusion has in fact often taken place and that the kind of criticism of technical education by practical men with which most of us are probably familiar has been the natural result. For one thing, the technical education which we have in mind is quite as commercial in its aim as it is industrial. As a matter of fact, about one-third of the day students in the Philadelphia Textile School, to which I beg to be allowed to refer as the type of technical school of college grade which I have in mind, have been attracted to the school mainly by the advantages which such education offers from a commercial point of view. I mean that what the men are seeking is not so much industrial power as disciplined judgment, and among the careers of graduates, which would perhaps be most likely to be cited as conspicuously successful, a very fair proportion would be classed as commercial rather than industrial.

It is not only perfectly natural that this should be so, it is exceedingly gratifying, and it is in the highest degree desirable that the truth of which it is the expression should be understood and appreciated. The trained judgment that technical education alone can supply is demanded by the office and the commission house as well as by the mill, and of the three the selling house is probably the most sensitive to the needs of the hour and the readiest to respond when the remedy is applied. I am, then, so far from regretting this commercial influence that I do not hesitate to regard it as among the healthiest and safest guides we have in shaping the course of the new education. I am by no means sure that it would not be the best thing possible to carry the school-shop idea so far that the salesroom should be as constant and conspicuous a feature of it as the workshop or the weave room. It is certain that the gain, in some directions, that would accompany such an arrangement would be tremendous.

On the moral side, for example, the gain that would result from trying to make everything worth something, of never consciously and deliberately wasting anything, would be immense. That this kind of waste is so great and is so generally regarded as not only unavoidable but as an essential feature of the educational theory involved, is perhaps the chief drawback to the manual-training public schools, which are doing such splendid work already, but which might do much more if the attendant expense were not so serious an obstacle. But more serious still than the expense of maintenance is the bad moral effect on the pupils of turning out things that represent good material and valuable time, and yet are not of the slightest use to anybody, and actually possess less value than the raw material out of which they were fashioned. Some of us are old enough to remember when the education of the artist was

The commercial influence a safe guide.

Everything made should have a money value.

dominated by similar ideas. We were taught that it was a rather unworthy aim to wish to paint pictures of any particular place or person, and that the only real dignity in this kind of performance was that which attached to the pursuit of the "ideal," which consisted in making something which did not look very much like anybody or anything that ever existed but was supposed to possess all the greater interest on that account. We have got bravely over such foolishness as that as far as making pictures is concerned, but I am afraid that we are just in the throes of it in our theories of what manual training ought to be, while much present-day instruction in decorative and constructive design is still dominated by this idea. Now the pupil's mind would be kept from much wasteful wandering and his moral fiber would be vastly strengthened at the same time if he were to be taught in the school, as the apprentice is always taught in the shop, that he is not to be trusted with valuable material if he is only going to waste it, but that everything he makes is expected to have a money value. It is by no means impossible that this money value of the things produced would furnish the best and safest measure of his progress as a student. But whether we go so far as this or not, it is certainly essential that the practical aim should be insisted upon, an aim, that is, that can be measured in terms of actual production.

Textile education, for example, must not be allowed to drift along the line of least resistance as determined by the students' inclinations or instructors' convenience until it becomes, under the guise of "textile engineering," almost pure theory. There is no need of maintaining textile schools at all if they are to be mainly devoted to a branch of mechanical engineering that is more likely to be handled efficiently, and to attract capable students, in colleges and institutes of technology of the older and more familiar type. It should not be forgotten that textile schools are schools of cloth-making, and the proof of their efficiency should be the cloth they actually produce. What Colbert did for France in 1662, when he made the Gobelin establishment a government institution and set the standard by which official encouragement to industrial skill was to be judged forevermore, was not to establish a school in which the theory of cloth manufacture should be elucidated, but to start model mills in which the crafts themselves should be carried to the utmost perfection. We need in America, much more than France needed in the seventeenth century, creative taste and skill. We revel in invention and float in theories, but let us not deny that a lot of things are still left for us to *do*. We have grown so used to exalting the triumphs of modern, and especially of American, ingenuity and enterprise, that we are in some danger of losing sight of certain very obvious limitations by which all this progress has been attended. We

Textile education must not be purely theoretical.

have made wonderful progress in the way of cheapening production; there is no doubt about that, and I would be the last man to underrate the significance and the beneficence of this advance. No one glories more than I do in the thought that comforts and conveniences that were unknown to any except the most exclusive and highly favored classes a century ago are within reach of the great body of industrious and frugal people to-day. But there is something besides cheapness to be thought of after all.

Underlying all the more serious political discussion of the age is the problem of industrial competition with other countries.

Nothing, for instance, that has reference to our relations with Germany has more interest of the disquieting kind than the statement which I noticed only the other day in one of the textile journals that Germany sells us sixty times more textile fabrics than we sell her. Now, without going into the question of the desirability of a foreign market for our goods, even to the extent of raising a question or two about China, to which I believe reference has occasionally been made lately, but confining ourselves to the discussion of ways for keeping our own home market, it cannot be denied that such statements are a little disquieting. For what is true of Germany is true of England to about the same extent, and of France to perhaps a still greater extent. While some of these foreign importations are poor in quality, and win their way by their cheapness, it is well known that they consist very largely of goods of a higher character than those produced here, and represent a finer and more skilful treatment than our manufacturers find it possible or at least practicable to apply to similar productions.

The secret of this advantage which our foreign competitors enjoy is really a very open one, and the truth is not to be hidden by any of the arguments regarding "cheap labor," "standards of living," etc., on which we have hitherto relied so fully, and which, indeed, have done and still do, such excellent service in other directions. When it comes to any of the higher and finer classes of production these arguments simply will not work, and another explanation for the situation which confronts us must be found. It is not hard to find. Every country in Europe to which the question under discussion applies makes special provision for industrial and art education on a scale of generosity, and supplements this education by forms of recognition and encouragement, with which no provision for similar work in America can at all compare.

The factories of Gobelin and the potteries at Sèvres are types of the model establishments which the French Government has for generations maintained, which Government has also seen that the artisans graduated from them were given something to do on such a plane as to set the highest standards of excellence that any

country knows, so that these government factories and government schools (the factory idea and the school idea frankly merged in one organization) have been veritable nurseries of the kind of power on which all high attainment in the arts depends, and centers of influence from which have radiated a kind and degree of skill which has permeated the great mass of French performance and given the country the unquestioned leadership which she enjoys to-day, and which has made her not only the most admired, but the wealthiest, state in Europe.

Whose business is it to see that this education is provided for the rising generation of American workers and those who are to give the right direction to their energy and effort? Is this something for which the State is to be responsible or must the individual manufacturer make generous contributions out of his experience as well as his material resources before the fullest measure of success can be achieved? Here again, I say, both methods and both kinds of support are necessary. Some of the best work is done to-day in schools maintained by firms or private employers for the benefit of their immediate employees. But there is a lot of work that cannot be done in that way, and that, consequently, must be done if done at all, by the State or by the city, or both working together, which is the best way of all. But even if these schools are maintained by the State, under what kind of guidance and direction shall they be put if not that of the men for whom these workmen are to be trained? Who shall furnish the proper, that is the practical, guidance that they need; formulate the courses intelligently, and fairly judge the results, except the men who own or who capably conduct the mills and shops that already exist? Whose business is it to know how that work ought to be done, if not yours, you who are doing me the honor of listening to me to-night? And my hope is that you will see to it that no good work of this kind suffers for lack of your cordial coöperation and generous support. To this service you are called by your duty as citizens, your interest as manufacturers and your instincts as men. As Americans you have a right to aspire to leadership in the work to which your energies are devoted; as business men you know well enough that it pays to be at the head of the procession; as men you desire the welfare of those who look up to you, and the happiness of the hearts that throb around you. You know that industrial leadership means prosperity, and that to fall behind is to falter and fail.

Some of the conditions on which industrial leadership depends are understood and appreciated; regarding some others I think discussion is still in order. I believe in advertising — when you tell the truth — and in blowing your own horn when horn-blowing is the duty of the hour, and I believe in a protective tariff, but American manufacturers

Who must see that this education is provided?

On what industrial leadership depends.



must face the fact that, salutary and even indispensable as high tariff laws may be, they are not the whole story by any means.

Industrial leadership does not come to a nation by any amount of self congratulation, by any amount of advertising, by any amount even of tariff legislation. It comes from ability to deliver the goods. (Applause.) It never came to a people yet by anything but the development of that power, and it will not come to us except in that way. Everything points to the school as the agency through which this ability is to be largely developed in the immediate future, but whether it is to come through the school or the shop is only a question of methods. The thing itself has not changed since the first cunning artificer won the admiration of his fellows by the cleverness with which he used his hands.

We have been too ready to take this skill for granted or to delude ourselves with the belief that we were learning to do without it. In our educational scheme it has been treated somewhat as the president of orthodox Princeton says that character should be treated in religious instruction, that is, as a by-product. This means, I assume, that it is something that may be worth saving and may be not, but the main business of education is concerned with something else. Now, for one, I think we have had something too much of President Wilson's philosophy and I believe that the reaction against it, and the growing demand that instruction shall lead, and lead directly, in industry as in morals, to the doing of something that is worth while, is the most hopeful sign of the times in which we live.

Sooner or later American manufacturers must realize this fact, whether it is palatable or pleasant to their ears or not, — that in order to have industrial leadership among the nations of the world they have got to learn to deliver the goods. (Applause.)

The PRESIDENT: The subject of "Welfare Work" is one that I am sure will appeal to all of those who employ labor.

The first speaker is from New York city, the great metropolis of our country. His profession is that of an industrial engineer, but he has for a long time made a special study of social and economic, as well as mechanical, problems.

I now have the pleasure of introducing Mr. H. F. J. Porter. (Applause.)

#### SPEECH OF MR. H. F. J. PORTER.

MR. PRESIDENT, GENTLEMEN OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF WOOL MANUFACTURERS, AND FELLOW GUESTS: When your secretary wrote to me and asked me if I would talk here this



evening on the subject of "Welfare Work," I felt that if I accepted I would have quite a contract on my hands, and I wrote to him and asked him how he wanted me to treat the subject. He said that "Welfare Work" was a new subject for discussion in this Association, and he would like to have me give a general idea of it.

I was reminded of a story of a Boston lady, who, several years ago, when the kindergarten was first established in your city, thought, from what she heard of it, that it was a very good idea. But she also thought that if she allowed her little girl to go down to the kindergarten and associate with all the other children, it might have a bad effect upon her. And so she wrote to the kindergarten teacher, and asked her if she wouldn't come up and just give her little girl "the gist of it."

And so I wrote to your secretary and told him that I would come and try to give you the gist of "Welfare Work."

I have been asked to address you this evening on the subject of "Welfare Work," and I understand that this is the first time that the subject or anything analogous to it has come before your Association for discussion. This is the third national body of large vested interests which I have had the privilege of addressing on the subject this winter, and as I know of several others which have been investigating it recently, it seems to me that there is a general movement afoot among these great and varied industries looking towards the adoption of the principles and methods which are involved in the title referred to. As, however, on the other occasions mentioned the topic of my papers was "Industrial Betterment," and as these two phrases seem to represent in the minds of many exactly the same thing, I want to take a moment of your time to establish at the outset exactly what I understand this movement to be, which, to my mind, is the ultimate refinement of industry, and in which so-called "welfare work" takes a prominent part.

First, then, as we have to start with some definite postulate I think I am safe in saying that it will not require any argument to prove to you the fact, and that you will consider it a commonplace, that this old world of ours is forever changing for the better.

I think you will agree with me that there have been through all the ages forces persistently at work that continually made for progress, and as in all the arts and sciences which have brought about our present civilization there have been development and improvement, so in those which affect the government of the nations taking part in that civilization there have been, more than in all the rest, changes for the better. And we must remember that the principles of the art of government involving the many do not differ in their essentials from those involving the government of the few. In the cases of the Nation, the State, the Municipality, and the Industrial Enterprise, a large group of individuals

Changes are  
for the better.

is formed to accomplish certain results, and this group is governed by a smaller group.

The art of government is as old as the human race, and as the various nations have developed and improved, so has the character of their respective governments been modified to meet the changed conditions.

In early times the type of government was patriarchal, with the strongest man of the tribe at its head, and this was the prevailing type for centuries, and it was ideal as long as the tribe was small, so that the leader knew each member and all could counsel together as a family. But as the tribes grew in size these close relations were no longer possible and the leader was withdrawn from association with the many. He then surrounded himself with his favorites as advisors, built up his army and his church, assessed his tribe for their support, and his permanent authority was established. This was the second stage in the development of the art of government, it assumed the shape of a military organization with generally a tyrant at its head.

Now it is a law of ethics that the abuse of power which always accompanies its unintelligent possession invariably leads to its overthrow, but so strong is habit and so tenacious our hold upon tradition that successors have always followed in the beaten path with only such restrictions to their authority as their outraged subjects dared to institute. But great evils gradually bring about conditions which ultimately effect a cure. At last the people, restless under tyranny, realized their power and began to exercise it by forming political parties and injecting into the art of government the principles of democracy, a word derived from two Greek words — *demos*, the people, and *kratein*, to rule. Thus has come about the third and last stage of government — “of the people, by the people, for the people.”

A long tedious struggle it has been to break the fetters which have chained men to the past, but history shows that the tendency has been towards democracy in all directions. First, religious democracy, giving every man the right to worship God according to his conscience. Second, political democracy, giving every man the right to have a voice in making the laws which govern him, as our Declaration of Independence puts it, “The right of every man to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.” And these changes have come about through education, through teaching men and women to think. And now, thirdly, we are witnessing the advent of industrial democracy.

Industrial establishments have until very recently been run on the patriarchal system of government. Until the introduction of machinery they amounted to small aggregations of people all of whom were on terms of intimacy with the owner. The interests of master and man were understood to be closely identified and often led to

Different  
types of  
government.

Management  
of industrial  
establish-  
ments.

family ties. Those were days of wholesome toil for both the employer and employee, the former being as skilled in the craft as any of his workers. But the growth of industrial enterprises became phenomenal when the steam-engine revolutionized methods of manufacture and the great numbers of employees which constituted their working organizations have made the employer a stranger to his help. Thus the second stage in the development of industrial government arrived and the man in control was the possessor of power, and he promptly assumed the role of dictator and oftentimes he was a tyrant. The inevitable exercise of undue authority has led to resentment in the industrial field as it had in the others above mentioned, and the industrial revolution, led by those whose interests were common, brought about the trades unions which have for some years been forcing a change to methods which are more democratic. Employers took little heed of history when they ground down their workmen until they organized for mutual protection and then punished them for organizing. We are all too prone in the freedom of democracy to feel that the possession of rights gives us license to do as we choose or at least as much as we are allowed to do. This tendency has brought about laws for our restraint. The employer can no longer do as he pleases. He must either counsel with his men to find out what they need and what they want, or he will receive the information by a more indirect though no less positive channel. But there are still moral restrictions which cannot be embodied in the law, and these we are now learning are equally essential of observance in the growth of a successful democracy.

For instance, by parity of reasoning, if one has the right to vote, has he not a right not to vote, or to sell his vote, or to stay at home and let some one else vote for him? If he has a right to run for office, has he not a right to use that office for private gain, or to do just as he pleases with it? If he enters business, has he not a right to run that business as he chooses? By no means. There has been too much of this kind of reasoning. We must learn, and we are rapidly being forced to the realization, that in every individual right there are duties to others involved. That if one assumes a duty it becomes not only a privilege but an obligation. Inalienable rights mean inalienable duties. The sovereignty is in the people. The latter are becoming educated and in education is salvation.

Of late there has been a moral awakening to our obligations. There has been an ethical trend to affairs, religious, political, and industrial. We have in our religious circles settlements formed for social betterment; in political affiliations we have federations for civic betterment; in the world of commerce we have institutes for industrial betterment.

Shop experts in accounting and office systems who devote

their time to making methods of organization and management more efficient, specialists in refining processes of manufacture and shop practice to simplify and increase production and reduce cost, both say that office and shop are very intimately related, and that to secure the ultimate efficiency of the working organization of either the human element must be accorded recognition. They say that no matter how perfect may be the accounting system, if carelessly or unintelligently applied it becomes worse than useless because it will be misleading in its results, that no matter how perfectly suited to their purpose the machines, or efficient in quality or shape the tools, unless they are skilfully manipulated the product will be unsatisfactory. So in either case the outcome of an enterprise possessing mediocre talent in its working forces will be jeopardized.

In order, then, to insure a successful issue to a manufacturing venture we must look beyond the mechanical assets to the qualifications for efficient service possessed by the organization of supervisors, clerks, and operatives, and it will be found that its measure of success will be determined by the standard of excellence of these qualifications. In other words, although a high-grade equipment is of great value in insuring success, still the necessity of possessing as highly efficient an organization as can be secured is of greater importance, for the latter can make the best of a poor equipment and produce good results, whereas an incapable organization will not only fail to make a fine equipment productive of good work but, probably, in a short time will destroy the equipment itself.

Mr. Carnegie, when president of the National Civic Federation, was asked by a number of financiers whether he thought that the difference between one style of organization and another amounted to much, providing the company had an up-to-date plant properly located. He said in reply that should some great catastrophe destroy all of his mills but spare his organization, which had required many years to perfect, he might be inconvenienced temporarily, but that he could depend upon his organization to reestablish his business. If, however, he should lose his organization, even if his mills which were the best in existence were left intact, he would have neither time nor strength to rehabilitate himself in the business world. Just as we have, for instance, recently seen it demonstrated that opposing armies and navies may have exactly the same guns, but that the side which has behind its guns the men of superior physique, character, intelligence, and skill will win the battle, so also it has been proven that it is not the tool that determines either the quantity or quality of product, but the qualifications for efficiency possessed by the man behind the tool who controls and directs it.

Considering for a moment the functions of the organization,



together with its circumscribing limitations, it must be recognized initially that, if one man autocratically dominates it, its scope of expansion can never be any greater than what he can himself devise. Also that the character of work which may be realized from the organization as a whole will be no better than can be produced by the individuals that compose it.

If honest workmanship is desired, honest workers will be necessary for its accomplishment; if quantity of output is expected, skill and enthusiastic devotion to duty must be possessed by the operatives; if improvement in processes and perfection of product are to be hoped for, the workers must have intelligence and be given suitable opportunities for its expression; if the organization as a whole is expected to grow, not only in size but in strength and character, facilities must be offered for the improvement of the individuals, and inducements made for taking advantage of them; if untiring aggressiveness against competition is desired, absolute confidence in the enterprise and its product will have to be developed in the organization, and if harmonious cooperation between departments and management is to be effected, a spirit of mutual helpfulness must be imbued in the individuals comprising them.

The attributes which human beings possess in common fall into three classes, viz.: physical, moral, and mental. Those belonging to one or another of these classes may predominate in men following different pursuits in life, but in any manufacturing enterprise it is evident that the physical attributes are the most important. No matter how moral or intellectual a man may be if he is a weakling, if he has not health he cannot be an efficient part of an active organization. First of all, therefore, the members of the organization must have health, they must be strong and vigorous.

Next, he must be of high character, for no matter how healthy or intelligent a man may be, if he is immoral, if he is dissipated, if his time outside of his working hours is given over to intemperance, gaming, or other forms of vice, his condition physically and mentally while at work cannot be such as to qualify him as an efficient member of a high grade organization. His physical and mental powers are gradually affected, his sense of responsibility weakens, he becomes irregular in attendance, careless in attention to his duties, and cannot be depended upon.

And finally, it is evident that, given a man of good physique and strong character, the higher his intelligence and skill in the direction of his duties the better qualified he will be to accomplish his daily tasks; but it is also evident from the preceding considerations that important as are these latter qualifications they must be subordinate to the other two and considered last in relative importance.

Huxley says: "There are two opposing methods at work in the government of the world, respectively, the ethical and the



cosmic. The practice of that which is ethical involves a course of conduct which in all respects is opposed to that which leads to success in the cosmic struggle for existence. In place of thrusting aside or treading down all opposition it requires that the individual shall not merely respect but help his fellows. Its influence is therefore directed not so much to the survival of the fittest, but the fitting of as many as possible to survive."

There are various devices for improving the condition of our shops and methods of treating employees which typify this ethical trend in methods of management, all of which are recognized as safe of application provided they are appropriate to existing conditions. These devices and methods found their beginnings in Germany toward the latter part of the last century. They were given the designation Wohlfahrts Einrichtungen or Welfare Institutions. This phrase has been badly translated into English as "Welfare Work" and gives to those to whom they are applied a feeling that they are objects needing special treatment, which is an unfortunate interpretation of their purpose. It requires a person who has made a special study of Industrial Betterment to recognize the features appropriate to the situation and to establish them effectively.

But all welfare work fails utterly unless the spirit of coöperation infuses the whole organization from employer down to the least paid employee. It is the introduction of this spirit that requires the highest intelligence and a thorough understanding of human nature. It is hard to realize the attitude of mind necessary to successfully introduce welfare work into a shop where nothing of the kind has ever been installed. All preconceived ideas as to how shops must be organized and managed have to be reversed.

Our systems of preparation for service have grown so fast that they have not harmonized and have never gotten into joint. We try first in the public schools to educate our people to think, and when they are old enough to work we put them into factories and industrial enterprises of all kinds, and then we do not take advantage of the instruction we have paid so much to give them. There they are with their powers of thought more or less developed, and we do not make an effort to encourage their originality. On the contrary, we say to them, "Do as you are told," "Do as some one else has planned for you," and so we do not reap the harvest that we have spent so much in sowing. The principles of the military form of government still persist where implicit obedience is required with no originality of thought. The implicit obedience theory is wrong, for it does not enlist the will in coöperation, and coöperation is what is necessary. Nor is this the only result. Man is by nature a thinking animal. The trouble with most of us is that we do not think independently. As I have said, we are not encouraged to do so. We think as some one else thinks, or as we think some one

Various ways  
of improving  
conditions.

Our systems  
have grown  
too fast.

else thinks we ought to think. And so, as the employer makes no effort to direct the thoughts of his employees, it is left for the demagogue or the yellow press to do it, and then the employer wonders why his organization thinks differently from the way he wants it to and is so disinterested in his welfare. But human nature in the employee is the same as in the employer. And when a man feels that his employer cares nothing for him or his interests, he is very apt to return that sentiment, and so the two instead of coöperating in a common interest become antagonistic, each working for his individual interests only. The workman has come to regard his employer, whom he never sees, as an oppressor who is trying to get from him all he can for the least money. The employer feels that his workmen are trying to do the least they can for the wages he gives them. That is the feeling they actually possess, although each knows that their interests are really common.

The mere increase in number, from the single capitalist who becomes a partner with a man who supplies skill to develop a project, does not alter the relations which exist between the employer and his many employees. The employer and the employed are still partners. The interest of the employees in any enterprise must be secured and maintained if the employer wants their coöperation, and to do this the employer must show his interest in the welfare of the employees.

Employer  
must show  
interest.

Human nature is human nature without any exceptions. A man will do more for his friend who is doing all he can to help him than he will for one who shows openly he cares nothing for his interests. Employers who sustain relations of the first kind with their workmen testify that without such coöperation they could not have attained their present success. They testify that a minimum of friction exists, that the machine moves smoothly and rapidly, and the desire on the part of the worker to subserve the interest of the employer implies good workmanship, increased production, and therefore greater surety to the enterprise. In other words, coöperation pays. This is only common sense. We have known it always, but we have waited for the twentieth century to come before practising it.

Intelligent provision for the best conditions of comfort and best facilities for producing work results in attracting the best grade of workers, who are capable of the best service; a mutual uplift is accomplished, an environment is secured in which the antagonist, the idler, the incompetent become eliminated by their own initiative. In other words, the more capable the individual and superior his facilities, the better will be the accomplishment. As Walt Whitman said, "Produce great people, the rest will take care of itself."

These ideas are not new. They are old as the human race, and yet they have been practised rarely and only when employers

have realized their civic and moral responsibilities and knew how to meet them. The inertia of selfishness is great. Men wish to keep all they have and grasp for more, and it is only competition and intensified self-interest which awaken them to adopt means other than those they are accustomed to to protect their interests.

Those employers who have come to see that they are not sufficient unto themselves, but need the assistance of their fellows, and through coöperation have attained success, have opened the eyes of others more conservative to a realization of the fact that if they desire to win the race they must adopt a more enlightened policy of action.

And yet there are many who have been incredulous of what they have been told of the success which follows the application of common-sense principles. They have hesitated to accept the evidence which has been presented to them. Now to accept theories without practical results is manifestly unscientific and dangerous, but to reject facts when the evidence is plain is equally unscientific and dangerous. Science and wisdom lie respectively in the detection and acceptance of the truth, not in the rejection of it, and it is possible to err by rejecting truth as well as by accepting what is false. And now these people are beginning to inquire into the new order of things, and yet there are many who have felt that they would wait until they could afford to be generous to their employees. But they are being told that success is the outcome of close relationship and not the reverse. It is this awakening of the industrial world to the touch of the democratic and ethical trend of affairs that is new, and the spread of the thought is rapid.

It was easy for the man to whom these ideas were natural to keep in touch with his workmen. But how is the other man to make the change? How is he going to alter his attitude of aggression to one of persuasion and coöperation? Will he frankly acknowledge his mistake? Will he not at once excite suspicion that he has some new scheme to work? Can he hope to gain confidence by acknowledging that he has not heretofore been deserving of it?

Of course it is impossible nowadays, in most cases on account of their number, for the employer to come in personal touch with all of his employees. The details of this duty must, like all his others, be delegated to the head of a department. But the importance of that department must now be recognized by securing for it as competent a head as is provided for every other, and it must receive the same personal supervision by himself as the others.

Care must be taken to avoid paternalism in the treatment of his people. No self-respecting man will stand patronizing, nor does he wish to be looked upon as an object of charity. Coöperation must be the mutual slogan. Not that kind that expects the other fellow to do all the coöperating, but the kind that extends opportunities of obtaining help. But care must be taken

regarding the manner in which help is extended. Helping men in the ordinary sense of the term tends to weaken them, helping them to help themselves develops and strengthens their ability to advance, and it should be remembered that as most of the waking hours of employees are devoted to their work, the effect of the employer's treatment upon them for good or bad will be great and permanent. Employees should be allowed to suggest their needs and how the latter should be supplied, rather than that their needs should be pointed out and offers made to meet them. These are democratic principles. In one case the employees ask for what they need and appreciate what they get; in the other, they have not wanted what they received and because, therefore, they show no appreciation of it, they are considered ungrateful. First of all, however, wages and hours of work must be satisfactorily arranged before any schemes of industrial betterment can be proposed. What men work for is money, and until their wages are satisfactorily adjusted any reference to betterment of conditions will be taken as a proposed substitute and looked upon with suspicion.

And now a word in conclusion. Remember that the democratic stage of industrial management has arrived. Do not be afraid to interest the employees in your affairs. The more you can interest them the less apt they will be to work against those interests, especially if you make it plain to them that your interests are theirs also. Men will rise to responsibilities as the latter are imposed. This principle is made use of in the School City, where the children of the public schools are allowed to govern themselves. Mr. Gill, who devised this novel method of developing the honor system, says, "Give a pronounced radical authority and he at once becomes a conservative." By adopting similar principles the juvenile courts are taking young criminals in hand, and by making them part of the constabulary are purifying our cities. If children and criminals can, by an appeal to their better nature, bring about such results, surely the assistance of the more matured adults should not be disregarded.

Scientific study of the wage and hours problems must be instituted and results attained which are conceded as fair by both sides. Then you can go ahead to develop the business along lines which are now recognized as progressive in contradistinction to those of a past age which are becoming obsolete. But because one person has successfully introduced certain welfare features in his shop it does not follow that they will succeed in another.

Alexander Hamilton said more than a century ago, "A government must be fitted to a nation much as a coat to the individual; and consequently what may be good at Philadelphia may be bad at Paris, and ridiculed at St. Petersburg." Similarly a system of shop management which is suited to one industrial enterprise may work only in

Interest your employees in your affairs.

Local conditions vary.



differently in another and be a complete failure in a third. This statement may seem to be trite and unnecessary, but I know from my own experience that as long as men are constituted as they are, and they have probably not changed much since the time of Hamilton, whenever unusual conditions develop in a shop under any form of management, suggestions as to remedies which have been successful elsewhere are at once made by people who are well meaning but have no knowledge of the actual situation. This is empirical, and Mr. Charles Francis Adams, of your city, in a recent paper on "Industrial Conference" before the National Civic Federation, says that, "in these (industrial) matters empiracy is of all things to be shunned." What is needed is a careful study by those whose knowledge of the conditions as they exist constitute them as most competent to analyze the situation and deduce proper methods of procedure.

Too often have mistakes of this kind been made. The country is strewn with wrecks of welfare experiments. Dr. Carroll D. Wright, in the "Bulletin of Labor, No. 54," says: "To those who read accounts of industrial betterment it may seem a most simple and easy matter to create a model community, build attractive houses, establish an institution with a trained social secretary and then think the rest will follow. How little they realize how much time, work, tact, patience, perseverance, and charity will be required to bring about the desired result. They will encounter racial prejudices, local and personal jealousies. They will have to repress the inefficient would-be leaders and to draw out the efficient but reluctant ones. We often read glowing accounts of industrial betterment carried out by such and such a concern, shortly afterwards of the establishment being the center of a disastrous strike, later possibly that the whole attempt at industrial betterment has been given up as a failure. Then it is safe to say that it was not conceived in the right spirit nor carried on in the right spirit. That it was either dictated by self-interest or executed in a spirit of condescending patronage. Industrial betterment to be successful must first be free of any suspicion that it is designed to take the place of wages; second, that it must not be too paternal or suggest that the recipient of its benefits does not know how to obtain them himself; third, the ideals aimed at must not be too far removed from actual conditions; fourth, as far as possible and continually more and more *the people should assume the management.*"

And so it will be whenever industrial betterment and welfare work are intelligently installed on democratic principles. Mr. Edward A. Filene of your city, in a recent address before the Chamber of Commerce, Cleveland, said that an attempt by his brother and himself to establish a lunch room in their department store was a failure. He then turned the matter over to the employees and they made a success of it.

Sound judgment based on experience is necessary in introduc-



ing these democratic ideas. Do not go at it haphazard. Get some one who has secured successful results to guide you till you can travel alone.

Be sure that you are right, then do not fear to go ahead, and do not be discouraged if success is not attained at once. It will only be because you have not yet come in proper touch with your people. Remember that you are dealing with the human element, that your responsibility in controlling and directing the lives of those whom you employ is a dual one—a privilege and an obligation. Have respect for the feelings of your employees and they will reciprocate the sentiment. Cardinal Newman's definition of a gentleman was "one who respects the feelings of others." Bearing this in mind:

"To thine own self be true  
And it must follow as the night the day  
Thou canst not then be false to any man."

Miss Gertrude Beeks, Secretary of the Welfare Department of the Civic Federation, was introduced as the last speaker. Miss Beeks used the stereopticon to illustrate her remarks and to show what can be done to improve the conditions under which the operatives in various lines of industrial employment live and work. In view of the importance of the subject and the crowded condition of our pages, we shall reserve her address for the June number of the Bulletin, hoping to increase its value by the reproduction of a number of views.

At the conclusion of Miss Beeks' address President Whitman, on behalf of the Association, thanked Mr. Miller, Mr. Porter, and Miss Beeks for their very entertaining and instructive addresses, and declared the meeting adjourned.

## ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY.

*To the Members of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers:*

Some one has written, "Happy is the people whose annals are quiet." If that be true, then indeed should this Association be in that much-to-be-desired state. During the past year the routine duties of the office have been carried on and the Bulletin has been regularly published, but there have been few happenings strictly within the Association or with which it has been directly connected. Under such conditions it becomes necessary, in complying with the requirements of the By-Laws, for the Secretary in his annual report to touch somewhat more fully than usual upon subjects in which the members of the Association are interested, even though there be some in which they have not taken an active part.<sup>1</sup>

## COURT DECISIONS AFFECTING THE WOOL SCHEDULE.

In the report of the secretary at the annual meeting for 1900 reference was made to decisions rendered by the Board of General Appraisers which indicated a disposition to break through the woolen schedule of the tariff act at a point very vital to the American manufacturer—by admitting under lower rates of duty than those provided in Schedule K goods made in part of wool and in part of other materials. One of these approved the assessment of tennis jackets, of which the component material of chief value was cotton, but which contained a certain percentage of wool, not under the wool and woolen schedule but under paragraph 314 of the cotton schedule, as wearing apparel of which the component material of chief value is cotton, and not otherwise provided for. At the direction of the Treasury Department an appeal was taken to the circuit court for the district of Maryland, and on March 30, 1900, Judge Morris rendered a decision in which he held,

<sup>1</sup> The discussion of the reciprocity movement and the new German tariff was originally a part of the report and was read as such at the annual meeting. Because of its length it has been formed into a separate article and appears in this number. — Ed.

in effect, that the proviso in paragraph 391 of Schedule L of the tariff act of July 24, 1897, which reads as follows: "Provided that all manufactures of which wool is a component material shall be classified and assessed as manufactures of wool," was not limited to the silk schedule in which it appears, but was applicable to the woolen schedule, and he directed that the importations should be subject to the duties of Schedule K.

In the Bulletin for June, 1900, appeared an editorial congratulating the wool manufacturers on the decision of Judge Morris; but it had scarcely reached its readers before a decision was delivered July 16, 1900, by the Board of General Appraisers in which the Baltimore court's decision was not followed but criticised, it being declared that any consideration of the proviso of paragraph 391 was not necessary to that decision—the assessment being determined by other provisions of the tariff act—and that the statement of the judge as to the policy of the act was not essential to the conclusion reached, was therefore *obiter dictum*, and was not regarded as binding.

Another decision was rendered October 16, 1899, in *re* Wright, in which the rule laid down in the foregoing case was followed, and tennis balls, composed in part of wool, were assessed as a manufacture of rubber. In that opinion General Appraiser Somerville paraphrased the proviso in paragraph 391 as follows: "That as a proviso to the silk schedule all manufactures composed substantially in part of wool shall be classified for duty as manufactures of wool, unless more specifically provided for in said schedule." He held that the proviso did not apply to any articles except those embraced in the silk schedule and which were not specially provided for in such act.

#### COURTS DIFFER IN THEIR VIEWS.

A number of decisions involving the same question, the construction, the meaning of the words "all manufactures" in the proviso in paragraph 391, have been appearing at intervals since that date, and it has been held uniformly that

those words do not have the larger signification contended for by this Association—that they do not include *all* manufactures of which wool is a component part. One case was carried to the circuit court for the southern district of New York, a decision being handed down May 19, 1900, less than two months after the decision by Judge Morris, in which Judge Townsend applied the proviso not broadly but strictly, confining it to the paragraph to which it is attached and reaching a conclusion directly opposed to that of Judge Morris. The two courts are of equal jurisdiction and standing; but the course of the Board of General Appraisers, even before this divergence of opinion, was not to recognize or follow the opinion of Judge Morris, but to give the proviso the restricted meaning indicated in the decision of Judge Townsend.

#### HISTORY OF THE PROVISIO.

To get an insight into the meaning of the wording of the acts of 1890 and of 1897 it will be instructive to examine the changes made in the laws and the apparent reasons for them. The leading case of *Hartranft v. Meyer*, decided April 28, 1890, ruled that where two materials entered into the fabrication of goods the latter should be assessed for duty according to the rates governing the component material of chief value. As the tariff act of 1890 came from the Ways and Means Committee it was worded like the act of 1883, under which the above decision was made. Thereupon, in May, 1890, the proviso was attached, by amendment in the House, to paragraph 414, to supposedly meet and overcome the decision in *Hartranft v. Meyer*, as far as it related to goods containing wool. This effort failed because of the decision rendered August 23, 1894, in the case of *re Darlington*, G.A. 2746, construing the proviso in paragraph 414 (corresponding to that in paragraph 391 of the act of 1897) which read as follows: "Provided, That all such manufactures of which wool or the hair of the camel or other like animals is a component material shall be classified as manufactures of wool." The decision of the General Appraisers in the above

cited case held that the proviso applied only to the paragraph in which it appears, and the phrase "all such manufactures" was construed to mean only all manufactures of silk not specially provided for in the tariff act then in force.

This decision was rendered but a few weeks prior to the passage of the Wilson-Gorman act, which was constructed on different lines. Wool was placed on the free list and there was no necessity of providing compensatory duties for the wool manufacture. Such duties were stricken from the act and along with them disappeared the provision that all manufactures of which wool was a component material should be classified as a manufacture of wool.

But in framing the Dingley law a different theory prevailed. Wool was restored to the dutiable list and it became necessary to again provide compensatory duties for the domestic wool manufacture. With that intent kept in mind, it becomes evident that the purpose of the change in the wording was to prevent the construction put upon the proviso in the act of 1890 from limiting the effect and scope of the proviso in the new act. Undoubtedly the intention was — whether it will be of force or effect remains to be determined by the appellate courts — not to continue to limit its application to paragraph 414, or Schedule L, but to broaden its meaning so as to embrace all manufactures of which wool is a component material. This, it must have been hoped, would be accomplished by eliminating the word "such," which it could be argued plausibly limited the effect of the proviso to manufactures of silk and wool not otherwise specially provided for — a construction we do not admit was meant by the framers of the McKinley act.

#### ALTERATIONS PRODUCE NO CHANGE IN CONSTRUCTION.

But this new proviso with the changed and broader phraseology, which to those familiar with the necessity and reason for it means so much, is now construed not one whit more liberally and comprehensively than that of the older act. By invoking technical rules governing the effect of provisos, it is still limited by the decisions, not only to the silk schedule



but to the very small number of manufactures not specially provided for in that schedule. In other words, the dropping of the descriptive word "such" and making the phrase comprehensive has not, owing to the strict application of legal rules, added one class of fabrics or one fabric to those covered by paragraph 414 of the act of 1890 as interpreted by the Board of Appraisers. According to these decisions construing the act of 1897, this change, so suggestive to the lay mind, so full of meaning and intention, has been so modified by subtle argument and rules of construction as to mean nothing additional. To us this ruling — which applies the proviso to the few non-enumerated articles of Schedule L and compels them to pay the compensatory duties, while all those goods specially provided for, and in which the need for such compensatory duties is much greater, if their manufacture is to be retained in this country, are admitted at a lower rate of duty — is extremely peculiar and anomalous. By adhering to the strict letter of construction, thereby destroying the symmetry of the act and, we believe, the intent of the framers, the shadow of protection has been preserved, in the lines affected by the decision, for the manufacturers of the United States, while the substance has been handed over to rivals without our borders. Rather than thus nullify the effect of the change, should there not be imputed to the minds of the lawmakers a clear intention to prevent, in determining the meaning of paragraph 391 in the act of 1897, a construction similar to the one placed upon the corresponding paragraph in the act of 1890? Ought this proviso, changed as it is, be limited to this paragraph 391, or even the silk schedule, by a rigid adherence to a rule of construction, which is, that a proviso shall be construed with reference to the parts of the clause immediately preceding that to which it is attached, especially when in that same rule it is laid down that this restricted application shall yield in cases where there is evident — as in this one — an intention to give to it a wider scope?

## COURT'S VIEW NOT ACCEPTED BY TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

This restricted meaning of the proviso has not met the approval of the Treasury Department, whose officials have several times put themselves on record as contending for the larger construction. While decisions have been rendered admitting tennis balls as manufactures of rubber and piano-forte hammers as parts of musical instruments, they have been acquiesced in by the department and not questioned by the Association, although not in harmony with our views as to the proper construction of the act, because such importations interfered but little, if any, with the wool manufacture. But in the case of Scruggs, Vanderwoort & Barney Company, abstract 9272, T.D. 26890, decided December 4, 1905, the proportion of wool in combination with silk in some of the fabrics was as high as 60.1 per cent, and the interpretation currently placed upon the proviso in paragraph 391 becomes of considerable importance to the wool manufacturer of the country. If such manufactures are to be permitted to enter our ports without the payment of the compensatory duties, then a decided injury will be done to the domestic manufacturer, compelled to pay the duties levied by the existing tariff, while his foreign rival gets his raw materials free, and he will be debarred from successful competition in those fabrics which can be imported under the lower duties. Here the component material of chief value was silk, though in one case the percentage of wool was greater, and in deciding whether they were to be classified under paragraph 369 of the woolen schedule as women's dressgoods or as woven fabrics of a certain weight per yard, with a certain percentage of silk, under paragraph 387, no attention whatever was paid to the proviso in paragraph 391.

By direction of the Executive Committee the attention of the Treasury Department has been drawn to this decision, and an appeal has been taken, so that eventually a final decision by an appellate court will settle this important question. If that decision should be governed by technical rules of construction, the fundamental theory on which Schedule K was

constructed will be departed from and the intent of its framers will be evaded.

#### PRESS CLOTH DECISION.

Another decision, made by Judge Townsend in the United States Circuit Court for the southern district of New York, respecting the duties to be levied upon certain press cloths of camel's hair used in the process of extracting oil from linseed and cotton seed, concerns the wool manufacturer. By the government they were assessed as a manufacture of wool not otherwise provided for under paragraph 366 of the tariff act, which covers "cloths, knit fabrics, and all manufactures of every description, made wholly or in part of wool not specially provided for;" by the importers they were claimed to be assessable for duty as "hair press cloth under paragraph 431 of Schedule N, which reads as follows: "Hair cloth known as erinoline cloth, 10 cents per square yard; hair cloth known as 'hair-seating' and hair press cloth, 20 cents per square yard."

The court's ruling in favor of the importer's contention is based upon the ground that the importation is more specifically provided for as hair press cloth under paragraph 431 than as a manufacture of every description made wholly or in part of wool. The inequitable results flowing from such a decision have received little or no consideration, and "construction" has been resorted to to thwart the intent of the law makers, which was to give the benefit of a compensatory duty to the home manufacturer. By this decision the American manufacturer, obliged to pay a heavy duty on his raw material, camel's hair, has no more protection than the man who gets his raw material, horse hair, free of duty. Surely such unfair treatment was not the purpose of the Dingley law. No distinction is made by the court between press cloth made from horse and cattle hair and that made from camel's hair. All, irrespective of their constituent elements, are declared to be specifically provided for and to come under the designation "hair press cloth," and to be commercially known as such. We have been able to find no case prior to

Judge Townsend's decision in which similar fabrics were called anything but press cloth; and upon the ability of the manufacturers to prove a distinction between press cloths made from the two materials, commercially known at or about the time of the passage of the Act of 1897, may depend the reversal of this decision. It is not necessary here to trace the changes in the various laws since 1883, but simply to record our belief that, from changes in the phraseology, the elimination and combination of paragraphs, it was the purpose to make the press cloth composed of camel's hair (wool for tariff purposes) pay a higher duty than that manufactured from hair coming in free from duty. The change giving occasion for this contention was made, no doubt, because of extreme caution, but the rules of interpretation and construction have been called into play and a court decision has been actually secured which is not in harmony with the principle on which the woolen schedule was constructed. That the case was not satisfactorily presented or argued, we infer from a letter of the Secretary of the Treasury to the collector of the port of New York, and another test will occur over the next importation.

#### AN EFFORT TO CHANGE THE ADMINISTRATIVE CUSTOMS LAW.

Another matter which vitally concerns the membership of this Association is the effort now under way to alter and amend, in a manner not calculated to advance the interests of manufacturers in this country, the customs laws of the United States. I refer to the report embodying numerous proposed amendments to the Administrative Customs Law of 1890 as changed by the act of 1897, just issued under the auspices of the Merchants' Association of New York. In the letter of transmittal to the Secretary of the Treasury, dated January 27, 1906, it is stated that at the suggestion of President McKinley a general committee was appointed by the Merchants' Association "to make a careful analysis of the act and to suggest such changes therein or amendments thereto, as they might deem wise, for the better protection of the government,



the domestic manufacturer, and the honest importer alike."

This general committee, a list of whose membership as printed in the report contains the names of several men now dead, delegated their powers to an Executive Board which filed a former report with the President in the year 1900. This last report, revised to meet criticisms leveled at the former one, is signed by Thomas H. Downing, a customs broker; Herman A. Metz, a dealer in chemicals and presumably an importer; George F. Vietor, an importer, and J. Crawford McCreery, a merchant and importer. It will be seen from the membership of this sub-committee — however membership of the general committee was distributed among the various interests to be affected by changes in the law — that the manufacturers were ignored, a fact easily discernible when the recommendations are glanced at, much less considered.

#### TWO OF THE PROPOSED CHANGES.

Some of the changes proposed are to be commended; others ought to be opposed. Lack of time compels me to notice but two changes, which, if adopted, will make it, in the opinion of your secretary, easy for the foreign importer, by means of the customs laws, to overcome the fair protection accorded by the present tariff law. The purpose of the one change is to substitute for the actual market value or wholesale price at the time of exportation to the United States the actual market value or wholesale price thereof "for exportation." And in explanation and defence of this change it is blandly explained that it is well known "that patented articles in foreign countries have one price for home consumption in the patented territory, another for export" — as if none but patented articles would be affected by the alteration! Another change in line with this, but letting down the bars still further, is suggested and urged. In cases where goods are consigned, and in this class the greatest frauds have heretofore been perpetrated, it is asked that the manufacturer or owner may be permitted to substitute for the price he would have received for such merchandise sold in the ordinary



course of trade, the price which he "expects to obtain and is willing to receive for the merchandise."

Should these changes be made, it would mean that the United States, not blindly, but with eyes open, had deliberately decided to make this great consuming market the dumping ground for Europe's manufacturing nations; for there is no foreign value for export — especially in the goods consigned and said to be made exclusively for the United States. Market value has been characterized as delusive and nebulous, but foreign export value would be vastly more so. Instead of making conditions better, they would be distinctly worse; the confusion and demoralization existing under the old law would under this suggested change be intensified; the reprehensible practices then existing and flourishing would be resumed in increased degree; the Government would be deprived of its just revenues in which it stands in need; and the reform accomplished after years of endeavor would be swept away.

#### MANUFACTURERS OFFERED AS A SACRIFICE.

It is a significant fact that after a six-year period of incubation this report is hatched at the time when Germany is making her requests for more lenient administration of our customs laws. And it is also significant that, in the papers making announcement of these proposed changes, it is stated that if granted they would furnish a basis for delaying the application of maximum tariff rates to American goods. To meet the views of Germany's representatives the manufacturers of the country are suggested as a sacrifice, together with the honest importer, and the treasury of the United States. And why, it may be fittingly asked, is this complaint heard from Germany, rather than other countries of Europe? Is it because her exporters being the hardest hit are the greatest sinners against the honest administration of our laws and therefore make the greatest outcry?

Whatever the case may be now, two decades ago this very year a committee of Boston's merchants and manufacturers, organized to suggest reforms in the administration of the customs

law, reported "that the same system of undervaluation," as in silks, cottons, etc., "can be shown in the same manner in respect to woolen and worsted goods, especially those from Germany, none of which are regularly imported. Cutlery, more particularly from Germany, has been for many years largely and systematically undervalued at the port of New York." Prevented by the existing law from perpetrating such gross frauds, it is not surprising that foreign exporters, guilty of systematically undervaluing their importations, should desire a change in the law which will permit a return or an approach to old conditions. By enabling undervaluations to be practised, by suggesting changes which will make it impossible to fix any reasonable value to the goods, and which will expose this market to "dumping" from all European manufacturing nations, it can well be queried, Has the committee followed the request of the lamented McKinley when he asked them to suggest "such amendments as they might deem wise for the better protection of the government, the domestic manufacturer, and the honest importer alike?"

#### DEMANDS OF WOOL GROWERS IN PROPOSED CANADIAN TARIFF.

The tariff hearings, held throughout the various provinces of Canada during the latter part of last year, prior to the promulgation of a new tariff law, developed conditions which cannot fail to interest the wool manufacturer this side the border—a sufficient reason for its introduction into this report.

Under the Canadian tariff of 1897 a duty of three cents a pound was levied on luster wools, these coming in competition with the domestic wools, all others being free of duty. At one of the hearings in the newer and far western provinces a petition was presented in which it was asked, in behalf of all the flockmasters of Canada, that wools for tariff purposes be divided into three classes, practically the same division being made as in our law, with duties of eight cents a pound on Class I., six cents on Class II., and five cents on

Class III. wools. Prohibitive duties were asked on shoddy, rags, waste, and similar by-products, on the ground that their use operates to the detriment of the sheep industry and to the loss of the consumer. To the manufacturer of the United States these are familiar arguments, as are those which asserted the adaptability of large tracts of that far western country to sheep raising and which predicted a large increase of flocks if the government would enact stiff duties to keep out foreign wool. These duties, if granted, it was argued, would put the sheep business on a paying basis and would increase the cost of "pure wool" cloths but slightly. If consumers objected, it was held to be better to reduce the duty of the protected wool manufacturers, few in numbers compared with the sheepmen, than that this boon should be denied the latter!

The Canadian manufacturer at present seems to be between the upper and the nether mill-stone. On the one hand, the tailors, dry-goods men, and, in some sections, the farmers have been insisting on the restoration of the full British preference,—that the exception made in favor of the woolen manufacturer shall be withdrawn,—while on the other, the sheepmen have been demanding, not only duties on all classes of wool without providing for compensatory duties for the manufacturer,—even suggesting a reduction of present duties under certain conditions,—but also that the Canadian manufacturer shall be interfered with in the use of, if not prevented from using, shoddy in admixture with wool in the production of woolen goods. Suddenly the wool and woolen schedule has assumed almost as much prominence, it is stated, in this revision of the Canadian tariff as it did in the revisions of 1883, 1890, and 1897 in the United States, with this suggestive difference: that in Canada the farmer raising sheep and the flockmasters have not as yet attained the political importance they have in our country; otherwise it is safe to conclude that their effort would not terminate, as predicted, with no change in the new tariff schedules in favor either of the wool manufacturer or the wool grower.

## SPECIAL DISTRICT ATTORNEY ASKED FOR.

The Secretary of the Treasury, in his annual report, urges that the department should be given an assistant United States district attorney at the port of New York, whose sole duty shall be the management and trial of customs cases. The salary, he suggested, should be sufficient to attract men of professional reputation, and he adds that "the cases lost at the port of New York alone through want of experience in this particular branch of the law would, I doubt not, aggregate a million dollars per annum." As recently as July 11, 1905, the secretary wrote the collector of the port of New York concerning the decision in a case involving the classification of press cloth, from which letter it is all too evident the department felt that the case was not properly presented, for the secretary directed that should another case arise the department should be notified "that it may be prepared to properly present the case before the Board and on appeal before the circuit court."

The Executive Committee at a meeting held December 8 endorsed this request, and your secretary communicated the resolution to the department. In these days of specialization and press of work it is too much to expect of a district attorney, whose duties embrace the prosecution of offenders against the federal laws as well as the trial of customs cases, that his knowledge of the tariff laws and the manifold rules of construction governing them should be as complete and intimate as that of men devoting themselves exclusively to such work. That the appointment of a man of the character indicated in the secretary's report would be of great benefit to the wool manufacturers as well as to the treasury of the United States, we thoroughly believe, and it is to be hoped that some heed will be given by Congress to the recommendation.

## WOOL AND PROSPECT OF INCREASED PRODUCTION.

And now, in conclusion, but a few words concerning the wool situation, past and present. In 1901 the Bradford



"Observer," in its annual wool review, said, "The supply is now too large to allow of any fear of a famine." Five years later, so quickly have we passed from surplus stocks to a lack of them, from plenty to a scarcity, that the same paper now wonders when the years of plenty will come again. The situation to-day emphasizes the rapidity with which changes occur in this generation even in the pastoral world. None in the industrial world could well be more marked or more complete than that which has occurred in the supply of wool for the world's manufacturers. For some years immediately preceding 1900 the clip of Australasia had been of immense dimensions, and a surplus had undoubtedly been accumulated in the consuming markets of Europe. Then came years of decreased output until 1903-4, when the lowest point for years was touched. The total Australasian clip for 1904-5 was 1,596,000 bales as against 1,367,000 bales for the previous year. This quantity is practically identical with that produced in the season of 1899-1900, but still some 363,000 bales short of 1894-5, when the total production was 1,959,000 bales. If, therefore, the estimated increase of 250,000 bales in the new clip, now in the market, should materialize, the product will be only about 100,000 bales less than the largest total ever exported from that country. There are those, however, who question this increased figure, and in justification of such questioning refer to the lack of confirmation in the number of bales already sold and the decrease of a pound and a half in the weight of the fleeces coming from the western district of Victoria.

But whatever the increase may be, it finds more looms in active operation, needing larger supplies, and very limited available stocks in the hands of dealers; in fact, so small as to approach the low water mark in the more than decade since 1891. The Boston Commercial Bulletin's estimate of the stock held in Boston, January 1, exclusive of the amount in bonded warehouses, was 43,183,000 pounds, an increase of 13,869,500 pounds over a year ago. The available supply of all kinds of wool in the United States unsold is

placed by the same authority at 96,875,443 pounds as compared with 53,435,811 pounds a year ago.

#### LARGE IMPORTATIONS IN 1905.

Because of reduced stocks and the remarkable activity of machinery, especially in the worsted industry, the call on the world's supply by the manufacturers of the United States during the past year was almost without parallel. For the fiscal year ending June 30, an aggregate of 249,135,746 pounds of wool was brought into the country, a total only exceeded by that of 1897, when 350,852,026 pounds were imported. During the past fifteen seasons but four years show imports in excess of 200,000,000 pounds, and three of those years were during the existence of the Wilson tariff, when importations, it must be remembered, did not indicate activity of the machinery of the wool industry, but an effort to anticipate a return to wool duties forecasted by elections almost immediately following the passage of the bill, and of those three years only one exceeded the amount for 1905. Notwithstanding this extremely large importation, so great was the demand, the prices for wools of local production were not affected injuriously, an indication, if one were needed, that the demand was a legitimate one. In view of the needs of the trade and the scarcity, prices advanced all along the line, until points were reached which were very materially in excess of those touched during the boom of 1899. During the year Ohio Delaine was as high as in the former year, and Ohio XX was almost 2 cents higher. Beginning 1905 almost on a parity with the price of 1899, Texas Spring Scoured closed the year at an advance of about 14 cents, Territory Fine Medium Scoured showed an advance only slightly less. At no time since 1890, the year in which our fluctuations chart begins, have the prices of wools approached those prevailing in 1905. The average value for the year is about 57 per cent higher than the average value for the past sixteen years. Altogether it was a most unusual year, and it is a question, if the top has been reached, whether there will be sufficient increase in the wool product to cause a recession of prices.

## BRADFORD'S TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

Bradford has been rejoicing over the marked increase in the trade done during the year with the United States, not alone in raw wool but in cotton and mohair goods. The value of the former in 1901 was £143,515. Since then, owing to the "Marquise" finish, the total increased to £370,383 in 1904, and to £801,418 in 1905. Of this large increase no less than £406,430 represent increased exports of cotton linings, the Bradford trade in cottons with the United States never having approached that of the year just past. The same can be said of the export of mohairs, at least during the existence of the present tariff. In 1902 they were valued at £309,737; in 1905 they amounted to £842,081. While these increases are noted in cotton linings and mohairs, worsted coatings, at one time one of the most important exports of Bradford, and woolen cloths made no considerable progress.

## NECROLOGY.

During the past year no member of the several committees has died, but three men who represented mills holding membership in the Association were called hence: Joseph West Green, treasurer and general manager of the Glendale Elastic Fabrics Company, of Easthampton, Mass., who died August 28, 1905; Major William H. Hodgkins, of Somerville, Mass., president and treasurer of the Ballard Vale Woolen Mills Corporation, who died September 23, 1905; and Edward Weston Morris, of Hartford Village, Vermont, president of the Hartford Woolen Company and the Ottaquechee Woolen Company, who died October 18, 1905, all of whom were men of high standing and influence in their respective communities.

All of which is respectfully submitted,

JOHN BRUCE MCPHERSON,

*Secretary.*

Boston, February 7, 1906.

## Obituary.

JOSEPH H. BRAGDON.

JOSEPH H. BRAGDON, editor and publisher of the "Textile Manufacturers Journal," died Saturday morning, December 23, 1905, at his residence in Flatbush, N.Y., in his fifty-sixth year. The immediate cause of his death was acute bronchitis, but he had been a sufferer from lateral sclerosis for many years. He was born in Newburyport, Mass., September 29, 1850, and was the son of the late Joseph H. and Julia Bragdon, the former for many years editor and publisher of a Newburyport daily newspaper. Mr. Bragdon was a member of the Arkwright Club and the American Trade Press Association. His wife and one son, Joseph H. Bragdon, Jr., survive him.

Mr. Bragdon's identification with the textile trade dates from 1887, when he became manager of the Philadelphia office of the "Wool and Cotton Reporter." In 1888 he became manager of the New York office of the same paper and continued in this capacity until the latter part of 1894, when he resigned to establish the "Textile Manufacturers Journal," the first copy of which was issued December 15, 1894.

His ability as a writer, his sterling business integrity, and his genial personality quickly won for him the confidence and friendship of large numbers of merchants and manufacturers. Some idea of the esteem in which he was held may be gained from the fact that he was unanimously elected secretary of the Woolen Goods Association in January, 1890, and continued in that position until the organization went out of existence. During his tenure of office he made heroic efforts to accomplish some reformation of trade abuses, and he had the backing of the best merchants in the district. Although the Woolen Goods Association went out of existence as a result of lack of coöperation of some of its members, Mr. Bragdon continued, through the columns of his paper, to fight for the principles involved, and this, and his efforts in behalf of the protective tariff, have formed two of its distinguishing features since its establishment. In this connec-



tion it may be noted that in the initial issue of the "Textile Manufacturers Journal" and in every succeeding one the following expression of faith has appeared at the head of the editorial page: "A tenet of our creed: We believe in the conservation of and protection to domestic industries."

The "Textile Manufacturers Journal" started December 15, 1894, with ten pages and fifty-nine advertisers. Its annual issue December 30, 1905, was of two hundred and twenty-six pages, and contained the cards and announcements of five hundred and forty-one advertisers. The latter issue, which was the largest ever published by any textile manufacturing trade paper in the world, also contained the brief notice of its founder's death.

Mr. Bragdon was paid a compliment, unusual in newspaper history, through the organization in February, 1904, of the J. H. Bragdon Association, the membership of which to the number of twenty-four was made up of present and former members of his staff. The association was formed by past members of the staff, most of whom hold responsible positions on other papers, and it will be continued as a permanent tribute to his memory and a testimony to the high regard in which he was held by those who had been intimately associated with him.

The esteem with which the trade regarded him is probably best expressed by the following tribute from a prominent woolen goods commission merchant:

When men like Mr. Bragdon pass away it is fitting that his friends record their appreciation of him. He himself would have shrunk from the thought of it, for, however much he desired prominence for his paper, he wished no praise for himself. He was, and cared to be, known through his newspaper, and the paper was to a singular degree himself. He long ago had the satisfaction of seeing the paper firmly established, profitable and respected. The extraordinary way in which he has continued to work upon it through years of bodily pain and weakness, almost to the last day of his life, has been the wonder of all who knew him.

Before his illness he was for many years one of the best-known newspaper men in the dry-goods district, and he was welcome everywhere. It is quite safe to say that none was ever so highly esteemed as he or had his access to what might be called the secrets of the woolen business. His help was frequently sought, and his advice taken, in the problems his friends encountered, and no man's confidence was betrayed, however great the temptation to print the news.

He has been greatly missed in a field where there is little time to think of the absent. His industry, courage, and hopeful spirit were an inspiration to all, and to those who knew him best his memory will be fragrant as long as they live.

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Just as the material for this number of the Bulletin was prepared for the printer, word was received of the death, on February 2, 1906, of Lord Masham, Samuel Cunliffe Lister, at his home, Swinton Castle, Yorkshire, England. It is impossible to give the space in this number to fittingly trace the career of so remarkable a man and one so prominent in the textile industry, a task we shall undertake for a future number.

## Editorial and Industrial Miscellany.

### THE DUTY ON PRESS CLOTH.

OUR attention has been called to a decision of the Circuit Court of the United States for the Eastern District of New York, rendered June 1, 1905, by Townsend, judge, concerning an importation of what is commercially known as press cloth, used chiefly to wrap about linseed or cotton seed in the manufacture of oil. The decision of the Court was a reversal of the Board of General Appraisers, and as the construction of Schedule K of the act of July 24, 1897, is involved, we print in this number of the Bulletin all the decisions relating to the question which have been rendered under the various acts of 1883, 1890, and 1897. These, arranged in chronological order, give upon close examination some idea of the great difficulty of incorporating into any tariff act sufficiently guarded language and language sufficiently comprehensive and unambiguous to prevent the defeat by court decisions of the object undoubtedly intended by the framers of the act. In this case, while the Court's opinion favors the importers, it is gratifying to know that the Treasury Department is not satisfied that the conclusion is correct, and instructions have been given to make another test under better conditions.

For nearly twenty years — from the time it was attempted to import this merchandise as bagging down to the latest case of *Caldwell v. United States* — repeated attempts have been made to evade the duties of the woolen schedule. Under the rule laid down by the United States Supreme Court in numerous cases one of the important points — if not the important point — in this case, in our opinion, is the commercial name by which the merchandise was known at the time of the passage of the act of 1897. And of this important fact Judge Townsend's opinion really does not inform us. It is true he says: "It is in fact a hair press cloth. It is so known commercially, and was so invoiced and sold." But as to how this important fact was determined we are not enlightened. Surely the mere invoicing and selling are not suffi-

cient, and as we understand the law it is a fact to be found by the jury and is not one of which the Court can take judicial notice.

The opinion is too short to be satisfactory as an authority. It is impossible to tell from it when the case came up on review, whether any witnesses were heard by the Court, or whether the statements of fact by the General Appraisers were before the Court. If no testimony was given, then there was none on the part of the Government, for as the judge says, "The Government introduced no testimony in this case before the Board." If such is the fact it is no wonder Assistant Secretary Reynolds wrote the Collector of the Port of New York "that no further proceedings will be directed in this case," and Secretary Shaw wrote that "in view of the unsatisfactory condition of the record the Department will not take an appeal."

On the claim that it was known commercially and was invoiced and sold as hair press cloth, the ruling is made that it comes under paragraph 431 of Schedule N, which specifically provides for hair press cloth by name, although without that provision all press cloth, whatever its component materials, would have been subject to the higher rates of paragraph 366; for it could not be admitted either as crinoline or as hair seating, and there is no clause in the act of 1897 covering all manufactures of hair, as in the act of 1883. The insertion in the act of 1897 of the words "and hair press cloth"—and by whom or how or when they were so inserted we are not informed—was made with the evident intention of making plain what had, under previous acts, led to protests before the Board. It seems that what was intended to clear the situation has but added to the doubt on the part of some, and has resulted in a decision which, if it be the proper construction of the paragraph, will work damage and loss to domestic mills engaged in the manufacture of camel's hair press cloth.

Reference to the decisions prior to *Caldwell v. United States* discloses that in none was it found by the proper officials that the merchandise was known commercially as anything but press cloth. Assistant Secretary Maynard, after some investigation, decided that it was commercially known and sold as press cloth. In T.D. 10505 the local appraiser found the merchandise consisted of a manufacture of cattle's hair commercially known as



press cloth. In T.D. 12202 the appraiser also found the importation consisted "of a manufacture of animal hair commercially known as press cloth." Nowhere in the decisions made prior to 1897 in the highest tribunal to which the protests against classification were carried — none going to a court — was it placed on record that the material was known commercially as hair press cloth. The term press cloth seems to have been applied indiscriminately to cloth made of camel's hair as well as to that made from horse and cattle hair, all the hairs up to 1890 entering our ports duty free. When camel's hair was again transferred to the dutiable list by the act of 1897, after the free wool period under the tariff of 1894, and became wool for tariff purposes, provision was certainly intended to be made for a distinction between manufactures of horse hair and manufactures of camel's hair, the one composed of duty-paying raw materials to be given a higher rate of protection than the one composed of free raw materials. The change, by adding "and hair press cloth," seems clearly to have been made for the express purpose of accomplishing the above result. To us the intent could scarcely have been made clearer, except perhaps by the addition of the words, and press cloth made from the hair of the horse or cow.

But let us apply a test used by Justice Hunt in the case of *Arthur v. Morrison*, 96 U.S. 108. There the question was whether crêpe veils should be assessed for duty as silk veils or as a manufacture of silk not otherwise provided for. Commercially they were known as crêpe veils and not otherwise. The judge said: "Neither the merchant who should order a case of crêpes and receive one of silk goods, or who should order silk and receive crêpe, nor the individual purchaser who should order a dress of silk and receive one of crêpe or should order crêpe for mourning and receive silk, would deem that the order had been properly filled." In view of Judge Townsend's decision, How would the importer fill an order for hair press cloth? Would he send cloth made of horse or cow hair, or would he ship cloth made of camel's hair? If the purchaser desired the horse hair cloth, which is cheaper and used for a different purpose, would he be satisfied with the more expensive cloth made of camel's hair or other dutiable material, and be willing to apply it to the rougher work? By the grouping made by the

Court, is either the purchaser or the importer placed in a position to know absolutely what is meant by hair press cloth? We think not; but applying hair press cloth alone to materials made from horse or cattle hair the difficulty vanishes. They become assessable under paragraph 431 of Schedule N, and the camel's hair cloth under paragraph 366 of Schedule K.

In the first case arising under the act of 1897, the American Express Company importation, General Appraiser Fischer found — presumably on evidence — that press cloth was made of horse hair and cattle hair as well as camel's hair, the former being known as hair press cloth and the latter as camel's hair press cloth, a distinction which does not seem to have been accepted — if attempted to be made — in the Caldwell case. In addition, the grouping of the subjects under certain schedules shows the intention of Congress to fix a class for the articles which forbids a technical definition of them in contravention of that grouping. All goods made of camel's hair are to come under the wool schedule, and hair press cloth, coming in the schedule along with crinoline and hair seating, the product of horse hair, must be limited to such textiles.

Judge Townsend — apparently in justification of his decision, whether correctly or not it is impossible to decide without knowledge of prices — says, “the assessment by the Board would operate to impose an ad valorem duty on this cloth of between 300 and 400 per cent.” And yet the inconsistency of his ruling — even if this reason could be considered in reaching a decision — is evident when it is pointed out that the manufacturer who is obliged to pay for his raw material the same duty as for wool is granted no higher protection than that accorded the man who makes cloth from horse or cattle hair, now and ever on the free list. The whole theory of the wool schedule of the tariff act of 1897 is to give to manufacturers not only adequate protection against foreign competition, but also compensatory duties for the rates paid on their raw material, placing them in a position as though they had that material free of duty. Surely such inequitable results as flow from Judge Townsend's decision could not have been the purpose of the framers of the act, and we very much doubt if the decision will be sustained when the facts are properly presented. Such a construction should not be placed upon a phrase whose meaning can be so satisfactorily explained

and harmonized with the intent of the act — without doing violence to any section or to any principle — as was done by General Appraiser Fischer in the American Express Company case.

The Caldwell case is another illustration of the likelihood of courts construing literally and strictly the words of a statute most favorably to the protestants and against the Government and the domestic manufacturers. Fortunately Judge Townsend's decision is not final; and undoubtedly a thorough test, in which both the evidence and the argument will be carefully looked after, will be made before there comes that acquiescence on the part of the Treasury Department, referred to by Mr. Sharrets. At the time of the passage of the act of 1897 horse and cattle hair press cloth and camel's hair press cloth were made. To the former, the new designation was intended to apply; to the latter, by reason of camel's hair being dutiable and manufactures therefrom classed with wool manufactures, the provisions of paragraph 366. That is common sense, that imposes a hardship on no one, and, when the question is properly presented to the Board and the Court, we trust that will be declared to be the law.

### THE YEAR IN BRADFORD.

THE annual review of the Bradford trade, contained in the "Observer" of December 28, is, if anything, more interesting than usual, and from it we make liberal extracts which will serve to show what occurred there during the past twelve months and what are the hopes entertained and the plans formulated for the future.

For a number of years some branch of the trade has had a hard experience due to bad seasons, wars abroad, lessened purchasing ability of customers, difficult conditions in the raw materials market, and various other considerations, all of which have their influence. The past year has been no exception, for while there have been worse ones for most people in the Bradford trade, as the "Observer" puts it, there has never been a more difficult one. Long acquaintance with low prices and losses experienced in former wool booms caused timidity and great cautiousness, which are not conducive to large and successful operations. Doubt as to the continuance of the wool prices impaired confidence, hindered trade, and affected stability.

Bradford looms are busiest when there is an abundance of cheap wool to keep them supplied. Then their rivals in the Colne Valley have no chance against them. The hard times bring out abilities and qualities of character that are at a discount when everybody is busy and trade is profitable. "A great many of Bradford manufacturers have turned their attention to cotton fabrics — not in an attempt to take away the trade of Lancashire, but in the development of practically a new industry. The mohair dress trade has taken a new lease of life by reason of the introduction of ideas borrowed from woollen practice; while similarly new fabrics in delicate shades of color are being produced with striking success from crossbred wools — in all instances a triumph of brains and determination."

Wool was scarcer than ever in 1905 and it does not appear when the years of plenty are to begin. As to the present year's supply, the "Observer" thinks it is not likely that it will turn out to be 300,000 bales in excess of 1904, and even at that figure the world will be short, as compared with 1902, to say nothing of 1895-6. "But we have to remember that in the period of actual stringency, which dates from the end of 1902, we have learned many lessons in economy which will remain with us for a long time, and will certainly not all be forgotten when once more we are smothered in wool. Still the demand is not likely to be as small next year as this last, and it is not at all impossible that in spite of the better supply we may have something like the present or even slightly higher range of values until the clip of 1907 comes in sight."

For the third successive year wool has been the controlling factor in the trade. Notwithstanding poor business in the home trade, stuff warehouses, looms in large number standing idle, and spinners running short time, prices for wool could not be depressed, except temporarily in March, when the recovery was almost immediate. The hardening of values took place in the face of an increase in the Australian merino clip of about 225,000 bales, the New Zealand, Cape, and South American supplies being almost stationary.

The English wool dealer had another innings, though it is a question whether or not he fared as well as in the previous year. Most of the pure South Down wools came to America at enhanced prices. For many who are traders, rather than speculators, the



year was a disappointment, and it would have been disastrous had it not been for American purchases. For the eleven months ending November 30 the quantity sent to the United States was 22,751,000 pounds, a trifle less than in 1903, when the total was 22,939,800 pounds. But the value for the eleven months, £889,675, was greater than that (£874,608) for the entire year 1904.

The estimated increase in the new Australasian clip is about a quarter of a million bales, but this will not materialize altogether until about July or August next. Unless South America comes to the rescue, of which at present there is no indication, a year hence there will be a supply still far short of the quantity available ten or eleven years ago. "As to the future," says the "Observer," "it would be foolish to speak dogmatically. We need to remember that the Bradford trade does not dominate the wool market. Any sensible man who would calculate the chances of values remaining where they are must take into consideration all the influences which affect Roubaix, Gera, Elberfeld, Lodz, and most important of all, Boston." One of these is that "high prices tend most decidedly to restrict consumption. . . . But prices are high or low only in comparison. Present-day prices are not so very high if we rule out of our consideration the two or three years of phenomenally low values brought about by the enormous expansion of wool production in the years preceding 1899." Another consideration is the undoubted preference of both sexes for something new and smart "at a price," rather than for something that may wear well, whatever it may cost. "This stereotyping of prices is indeed becoming every year more pronounced, and is far reaching in its effects. It leads to 'substitution,' shoddy for wool, cotton for shoddy, cotton linings for Botany Italians. So that wool is being spread on thinner and made to go further. It is even assisted by the fashion of the day, which is for lighter makes.

"Once we have learned how to economize on any article of consumption, it is not again wasted so lavishly as it once was. . . . Wool will probably never entirely displace the cotton Venetians and other splendid productions, for which we are largely indebted to the long droughts in Australia and the popular appetite for Canterbury lamb. But a most powerful influence is at work to bring about a return of plenty in wool supply. Sheep pay better, probably, than anything else that lives or comes off the land, and

this is true of all countries in which sheep can be carried. Australia has learned how to fight drought by artesian wells and artificial feeding. South America is developing new sheep areas, and more attention is being paid to sheep in South Africa. It will take time. We are not back to the level of 1895-6, and in the ten years since then the world's need of wool has increased by leaps and bounds — especially in the United States, Canada, and Japan." Stocks are low, the increase in this year's clip is urgently needed, and a considerably lower basis of values can scarcely be looked for than that which has prevailed for several years past.

#### MOHAIR.

Mohair has had a somewhat peculiar year, and Bradford dealers in the raw material have no cause to remember the year with pleasure. The popularity of mohair goods in the United States and the recent fine summers in England suggested the likelihood of a successful season; but the expected and hoped-for turn was scented afar by the Turkish and Cape dealers who, at the very opening of the new season, asked an advance of 2d. or 3d. a pound — a demand to which the trade did not immediately respond. Throughout the year the best demand was for mixed parcels, really fine hair being neglected.

Alpaca, in former years fluctuating violently, was remarkably steady throughout the year. The demand, while not large, was regular and stocks did not become excessive. The extreme range of values for good average fleece was from 16d. to 18d. Increased direct shipments are held accountable for the decrease in the imports into England.

#### YARNS.

In the report for 1904 the existence of a curious and, happily, rare phenomenon, a rising market accompanied by a state of depression in trade, was pointed out. This state of affairs continued during the greater part of 1905, with the natural result that, on the whole, the profit for both spinner and merchant has been either of the smallest or else — and especially in the case of the spinner — there has been an actual loss. Respecting the wool scarcity the report says :

Most people were extremely difficult to convince that there was an absolute shortage, and even those that were so convinced

were influenced in their dealing by the reflection that when wool reached a certain high price there would be in many quarters an attempt to replace wool by some cheaper material. And this is a perfectly correct view to take, as has been proved by the fact that whilst makers of good all-wool serges have found business frequently very difficult, on the other hand the users of shoddy and merino — who were able to produce a good-looking cloth at a low price — have been very busy. Some of the outlying districts of Huddersfield, and also some of the so-called heavy woolen manufacturers, have been working overtime for months together during 1905. The goods they produce, generally speaking, will prove ultimately dearer than those made from better material, but they look well at first, and therefore are admirably suited to the great makers of ready-mades, who have to bring out suits and costumes at certain fixed prices. . . . And it is not only in cloth and costume-stuffs, but also in the hosiery trade, that the dearness of wool has led to the substitution of cheaper material. Combinations of wool and cotton, either mixed before being spun, or else a thread of each twisted together, have been in great demand. This has been helped by an abundant and cheap supply of cotton and by skilful dyeing and finishing, so that hosiery manufacturers have been able to keep the market supplied with very presentable goods at reasonable prices. Had it not been for this there would have been a veritable famine in wool, and prices would have gone considerably higher than we have seen.

Whether we have at length come to the top or not it is, of course, hard to say. The general impression seems to be that we have now touched high-water mark for most sorts, and in the lower grades a decline seems very possible. When we reflect that 2-12's low crossbred, which three years ago was sold at 9½d., has reached over 1s. 5d. this year — very nearly double the former price — there seems to be a probability that there will be a giving way. Users of such low yarns are mostly either makers of low serges or carpets, or else are belting manufacturers — and all these are goods which can scarcely stand an advance such as the present price of this class of yarn makes imperative.

The ordinary two-fold worsted spinner in the export trade had a hard time of it, those engaged in the 32's trade especially. Business was of a hand-to-mouth character all the year. If the volume had been ample and the margin sufficient, nothing could have been better; but the volume was insufficient to keep the machinery going and for a large part of the year short time was the rule. In thick counts and in belting yarns a fair business was done; but the spinner of low crossbreds for carpets was in a difficult position, perhaps at no time during the year being able to sell his yarns at a profit. Spinners of hosiery yarns suffered,

as did the carpet yarn spinners. There was some trade to do, but generally speaking without profit, and contracts were smaller than a few years ago. The mohair yarn trade for a large part of the year was satisfactory, nearly all in the export branch doing well, especially in the low and medium qualities. For really fine yarns, however, for dress goods, the demand was slow and disappointing all the time.

But perhaps the greatest change during the past few years was in the demand for fancy yarns. Three years ago they could not be made fast enough — now they are hardly wanted at all, though there are certain low-priced goods on the market which contain a small proportion of fancy effects. Spiral yarns share equally in the depression, though even these some makers still find useful. Never before in the history of Bradford was there such a demand for cotton yarns.

#### PIECE GOODS.

Here the experience of the previous year was largely repeated. There was the same difficulty of high prices to contend with, and the squeeze was continuous and severe. "The working classes are better off than they were; but they still have a lot of leeway to make up before they can spend a great deal on clothes." Recently the Bradford piece trade has been passing through a new and decidedly unpleasant experience, arising from changed economic conditions. In the old days, when the price of wool went up it used to be because of an extra demand in the Bradford trade, and merchants were able to obtain correspondingly enhanced prices for the finished product. For wool to become dearer in a time of limited consumption was a thing unknown and apparently impossible. An enormous falling off in wool production, with half a dozen other markets competing for a share of the reduced supply, has at length brought the impossible to pass, and during the last two years the Bradford trade has been witnessing the curious phenomenon of wool values maintained on a much higher level than the consumption in this market alone would warrant. This, of course, has made business exceedingly difficult. In the first place, the increasing pressure of custom is against an advance in prices, the tendency in the drapery trade being more and more in the direction of regular lines at fixed prices. As a result, when a cloth that has been selling at one of the fixed prices will no longer fit in, the draper



discards that cloth and looks for something else. Prices may be inelastic, but quality is not. The report continues :

For this reason 1905, like 1904, was largely a woolen year. In place of the cheap worsteds which Bradford used to supply in such quantities for the million, all manner of wool and cotton and wool and shoddy mixtures were in vogue. In the Yeadon and Guiseley district and in the Colne Valley, where these cheap substitutes are made, the mills worked at high pressure the year through. Imitation tweeds and imitation cheviots formed the bulk of the output, which was very large indeed. But even in this trade qualities are now being run down on account of the dearness of raw materials. Never before has the world been scoured so thoroughly for rags, and with noils virtually on the same level as tops, manufacturers have had the greatest difficulty in keeping up standards. Recently the woolen trade has been taken up by some Bradford makers, who have found it return very good results.

In the worsted trade most of the old standard makes have vanished, and the pressure of competition is making every year for more and more variety. There never has been a time when Bradford manufacturers could offer their customers so wide a choice, and as a concomitant of this change there is noticeable a great improvement in taste as regards both color and design. The trend of fashion during the past year was away from cross-bred cloths and in the direction of Botany fabrics with cotton warps. What used to be called suiting serges were largely superseded by cashmeres. The delaine trade, which was killed by the introduction of the blouse, curiously enough came by its own again precisely on account of the survival of the blouse. There was a big trade in both all wool and cotton warp delaines, whilst Lancashire produced some very beautiful things in all cotton. Printed flannels also had a good run as material for blouses. There was an enormous business in tweeds, in which, it should be noted, foreign competition was felt very little, though in amazons and similar cloths the French still retain their superiority. In fancies the call was mostly for subdued checks. For the coming spring some very pretty things have been made in the style of men's suitings, but, of course, in brighter colors and lighter weights. In finding new openings for crossbred wool, of which this is an example, a few Bradford firms are showing splendid enterprise. The coating trade has been fairly good. Shower proofings have been at a low ebb throughout the year, but are at present showing signs of revival. Silk and wool mixtures have proved disappointing.

Mohair and alpaca dress goods stand out as the best feature of the year, a very large American demand accounting for most of

the trade. There was some continental trade, though little was done in the home market. Linings had a better year. The output was larger than in 1904, though profits may not show any material improvement. Great changes have been wrought in the Bradford trade by the advent of mercerized cotton and the new finishes to which the process lends itself, until it is probable that cotton fabrics now account for something like 75 per cent of the trade. Concerning them the "Observer" says:

Cottons are becoming an increasingly important branch of the Bradford trade, both as regards manufacturing here and the dyeing and finishing of goods manufactured elsewhere. The enormous development in this direction has been mainly due to two notable finishes devised by the Bradford Dyers' Association — the Marquise and the Suede. The Marquise finish was the first to give a decided impetus to the cotton trade, and to its introduction is due the huge business that has been built up in Venetians. Unlike the old cotton Italian, which was a weft-faced cloth, the Venetian has the warp to the front, and it is this structural feature that gives its characteristic clothly handle. Venetians are now largely used as linings for overcoats, and also to some extent as dress linings, whilst they are quickly replacing the heavy-weight cotton Italians previously used in the manufacture of corsets. They find a ready market in the Far East, where they are made into garments, being preferred for that purpose to the old sateens on account of their greater richness. Having succeeded so well with Venetians, the Dyers' Association began experimenting in another direction, and eventually produced the Suede finish, which does for weft-faced cloths what the Marquise does for warp-faced cloths. An essential condition of the successful application of the new finishes is good weaving, and if this is borne in mind the Bradford district ought to be able to retain the trade it has created against any attempt to filch it away, for in the matter of careful weaving Bradford enjoys an unquestionable superiority over Lancashire, which is, of course, the quarter whence rivalry may be expected. To manufacturers with narrow looms, Venetians and kindred fabrics have been a godsend. Not for many years have narrow looms in Bradford been driven so hard. Mercerized cotton has uses apart from the lining trade, and many beautiful things in fancy dress fabrics have been made from it.

The imports of wool fabrics into England were valued at £9,820,000 as compared with £9,048,000 in 1904. The exports of wooleens were valued at £9,130,000, compared with £7,257,000 the previous year, and the exports of worsteds were £6,673,000 compared with £6,480,000 in 1904.

"The feature of the trade with the United States," the report says, "has been the large demand for mohairs, which for nearly two years have enjoyed quite a boom. Since last year, however, the fashion has changed from fancies to plain fabrics, and the bulk of the trade during the past twelve months has again been in blacks, navy blues, and creams. A few fancies have been put on the market for next spring, mostly in soft shades of gray, and so far these have sold very well and brought satisfactory repeats. Although the year closes with a noticeable shrinkage in business as far as bright goods are concerned, an early revival is looked forward to. How long manufactures of bright goods in this country will retain their hold on the American market is one of the interesting problems of the trade. The Americans are making a strong effort to capture the business for themselves, and with their tariff they fight at a great advantage. Thus far the advantage has been neutralized to some extent by their want of experience, but this will not be the case always. Great advances have been made recently, and the British manufacturer finds the competition keener every season."

### THE FUTURE COTTON SUPPLY.

MONSIEUR M. C. BERGER, vice-president of the Cotton Association of France, was a delegate to the Manchester (England) convention. The following extracts are taken from his address describing the progress made in extending the cultivation of cotton. He said:

This question of cotton cultivation has become a universal one. Cotton is the most democratic of textiles and the most necessary for all, rich and poor. It is necessary for the Government of each country to lend financial aid to colonial cotton associations and in other ways favor those engaged in the cultivation of cotton. What will happen when each country shall produce in its own colonies enough cotton to supply a large part of its spindles? We may then expect surprises from the Americans, and the Old World will be obliged to take protective measures against the invasion of products from the New. Permit me now to lay before you the actual facts of the situation in each of the colonial cotton associations.

Russia, the first nation to think of developing cotton culture, has, in the Province of Turkestan after fourteen years, succeeded

in producing a sufficient quantity for a third of her consumption, and her output will be greatly increased.

Belgium possesses an immense field for experiment in her Congo Colony in Africa. She has five times more territory there than France has. She is now making experiments all over her vast territory, but will localize her cotton growing in the territory to the southwest near the sea and north of the Portuguese possessions of Angola, thus cheapening transportation. The Congo cotton plantations are managed by Americans from Texas. American seed has succeeded wonderfully well and the cotton grown is satisfactory both in quality and quantity.

Italy has made no efforts in cotton growing except in Erythrea, Egypt. What is grown there, however, is of good quality, though its cultivation has hardly passed the experimental stage.

The old abandoned fields on the Balearic Islands have recently been worked, and the Spanish Government is furthering the movement, offering to the growers immunity from all taxation and prizes in money.

In Portugal the government organized a commission in August, 1904, to study and propose means for cotton cultivation. The work of the commission ended in March, 1905, when it presented to the minister for the colonies a full report covering the history of cotton growing in the Portuguese colonies, proposing a law which the minister accepted and presented to Parliament. It is proposed to exempt all growers from taxation, to admit machinery free of duty, and to afford reduced rates of transportation. The importation of Angola cotton in 1900 amounted to 17,000 kilograms, in 1904 to 107,000 kilograms, and this year a much larger production is promised. The cotton grown there is superior to what is known as "good, middling American." In the Province of Angola, as in Mozambique, there is enough land to produce cotton sufficient for the world's consumption, and the conditions of cultivation are most favorable.

The German association known as the "Kolonial Wirtschaftliches Komitee," commenced with a capital of 937,000 francs and received annually from the government 75,000 francs, which amount is to be largely increased. The production of cotton in the African colonies is progressing favorably, and the quality is satisfactory.

The value of the cotton crop of 1904 in the British colonies we may estimate at 100,000 francs, and the present season at 250,000 francs. The opinion in England seems to be that her colonies could produce great quantities of cotton which could easily find a market, as America can never have more than 35,000,000 acres for cotton-growing purposes, and there is an increasing demand annually of about 400,000 bales.

In regard to France, in 1903 we particularly directed our efforts to the Sudan, Dahomey, Madagascar, and Algeria. In the Sudan we conducted our efforts in the region of Ségou on the



River Niger. In May, 1904, five tons of American seed were distributed principally in the vicinity of Ségou, but the crop was poor because of the dry season. Native seed, that had been sown two years ago, resisted the heat because of their deeper roots, while it was noticed that American seed, sown in the same year, resisted better than the native.

In Dahomey seed was distributed, but it is too early to prognosticate. In Madagascar, experiments made, in 1903, with different varieties of seed, demonstrated that the great island could furnish cotton in abundance, principally upon the west coast. The cotton grown was remarkable for length of fiber and fineness. Distributions of seed will be made to the planters on the southern coast and in the Province of Betsiléo.

In Algeria 200 kilograms of Egyptian seed were distributed by the Colonial Association to the planters on the plains of Sig, de Perregaux, and de Pelizane. The different cottons obtained were of remarkable quality and much appreciated in the markets of Havre. Mr. Berger concluded his address as follows :

"The French Government is lending its aid to the development of cotton culture in its different colonies and is constructing ways of communication which will permit, in two or three years, the bringing of cotton to our French ports at the same prices it costs to bring it from New Orleans or Galveston."

## THE WEST OF ENGLAND WOOLEN TRADE IN 1905.

THE following review of the West of England woolen trade is taken from the Manchester "Textile Recorder." It says :

In taking a retrospective glance at the West of England woolen trade during the year now ended, it is some consolation to be able to record a considerable improvement in employment throughout the whole district.

Although the year began badly, with trade in a depressed state, and with no immediate prospect of revival, after the first three months of the year there was little or no complaint in regard to lack of orders. Ever since about the beginning of April the looms have been swinging away as fast as the wheels could drive them, and the only difficult problem has been the task of getting the turnout to balance the rush of orders, most of which have been for urgent delivery.

It has not been an ideal year, of course, for it is not to be expected that trade would take a sudden leap from bad into good, but it has been a much better period than any one concerned could have hoped for or sincerely prognosticated. It is safe to say that, had raw material been at anything like a reasonable price, the year might have been set down as a really prosperous one, for

there has been little else to bar the way to the prosperity to which manufacturers have been looking for some years, although in vain.

There were some indications during the year 1904 that fashions, in the better class trade, were returning to finer and better quality goods, after a sojourn amongst fabrics of a rougher and more tweedy character. After carefully nibbling at the bait there came a great rush for West of England goods about the beginning of April in the past year, and from that time onward there has not been an idle moment, and most of the firms making fancy goods report having sufficient orders in hand to last well into the first few months of the present year.

Fancy covert coatings have been in great favor, and there has been some tasteful catering for a fastidious demand. Overchecks of very intricate coloring and extensive dimensions have been in evidence, and the ground weaves have been fancy to a degree, although the line has had to be drawn at tasteful effects.

These large overchecks and elaborate designs have tended to restrict the output, as they take so much time to mount in the loom, and have to be woven with extra care. This characteristic has been seen in fancy riding tweeds as well, these goods having been well favored too, but the overcheckings and designs have been bolder and more varied.

Flannel suitings have had a revival in favor, owing to the fine summers of the last two years, and there is every reason to look forward to some good repeat orders in the near future.

Woolen trouserings have been quite a dead letter, and plain black and blue serges and vicunas have been quiet.

All suitings, both woolen and worsted, have been in great demand, but they have had to be very good, as the competition in low tweeds has become a serious menace to the better quality fabrics.

Military goods have had a very quiet run, and there have been very few government contracts of any interest to the makers of this district. The livery trade has been moderate, and there has been more demand for beavers, meltons, and other plain goods for winter overcoatings.

Saxony suitings and overcoatings have been extensively chosen, especially during the past winter, and some good orders will be placed for these goods shortly for next winter.

The catering for motorists has become a recognized and profitable branch of the trade, and makers here have been in the front with marketable cloths and designs.

The continental trade has been most satisfactory, and large orders and shipments have been a feature of the past year in respect to the markets there. It is many years since so good a demand has come from continental sources, and this boom has had its echo in the home revival.

The trade with the colonies and other markets has not been

characterized by any special rush of orders. Australia and Canada have been moderate in their requirements, but the United States, and especially South Africa, have been no better than they were last year.

On the whole, the year has been an uneventful one, and there have been few changes. It is true that two old-established manufacturers have seen fit to shut up their mills and to retire from business, and in both these instances the mills have been acquired for other purposes. But in one case negotiations for the rental of one of the mills for woollen manufacturing fell through at the last moment, and in the other the mills, or part of them, would have been taken over by another firm of woollen manufacturers had not previous arrangements been made. The retirement of one of these firms was the more regrettable as it meant the passing of the woollen trade from the quaint little town of Bradford-on-Avon, a town which has been associated with the trade for some centuries, and which is now without a woollen mill to connect it with its past glories.

In spite of these losses, there have been many signs of activity in other quarters, showing that the spirit and enterprise of West of England manufacturers is still a power to be reckoned with. Several manufacturers have made improvements and additions in their mills, and a good deal of new capital has been invested in machinery and buildings.

The abortive attempt to place the West of England manufacturing industry on a more systematic footing, by forming an association to protect the name of the district, must not be forgotten, for the question is still a burning one with some manufacturers, and may come up for reconsideration at any moment. The difficulty seems to have been in formulating a workable scheme, as few firms in the district dispute the fact that some such organization is needed, but they do not quite see how it is to be worked.

The prospect for the coming year is a good one, and if wool falls in price, as is anticipated, there should be every reason to look forward to satisfactory results at the end of 1906.

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### TECHNICAL OVERTRAINING.

CONSUL HARRIS, of Mannheim, Germany, says the German Empire is rapidly building up a class of men for whom it has no employment at fair wages, and for whom the demand does not increase as fast as the supply. He cites the opinion of a writer in a leading paper of Mannheim to the effect that technical education in the Empire has been carried far beyond the power to utilize it. The consul writes :

The question of erecting a school for the building trades in Mannheim being at present under discussion, a prominent constructing engineer has contributed an article to a leading newspaper of the city, in which he aims to show that technical education in Germany has gone beyond actual needs. He contrasts the number of those taking such training with the number in other professions, and concludes that the ranks of the technically trained are at present much overcrowded. The following extracts from his article will be of interest. The term "technical high school" used in the article is peculiar to the German school system, and represents the highest grade of technical schools in Germany, of which there are at present ten in the Empire.

#### NUMBER OF STUDENTS.

The number of those studying in the technical high schools in Germany in the winter of 1890-91 was 5,432, and in the winter of 1904-5, 15,866, or, in other words, there was an increase of about 200 per cent. On the other hand, the number studying theology in Prussia in the winter of 1887-88 was 2,713, and in the winter of 1903-4, 1,005, or a falling off of almost two-thirds. The number of medical students in Prussia in the summer of 1887 was 5,168, and in the winter of 1903-4, 3,020, a falling off of almost one-half. In the scientific technical branches of the departments of philosophy in the advanced schools (as the universities), which, as shown by experience, prepare a large percentage of technically trained students, the number of such students in the winter of 1901-2 was 1,100, and in the winter of 1903-4, 3,015. It thus appears that there is a rapid increase in the technically trained that casts into the shade the well-known enormous increase in those trained in legal studies, which in 1889-90 amounted to 2,925, and in 1903-4 to 6,345. From the latter ranks also, it is not to be overlooked, come many of those holding official positions in industrial undertakings.

#### CONDITIONS IN MIDDLE-CLASS SCHOOLS.

Similar conditions are to be noted in the middle and lower technical schools. Thus, in the 22 schools for the building trades belonging to or receiving aid from Prussia, the number of students in the winter of 1902-3 was 4,251, and in the winter of 1903-4 was 5,077, an increase of 20 per cent in a single year. For a period of ten years this increase would amount to 200 per cent. The number of special schools in the metal industries belonging to or supported by Prussia in 1891 was 9; in the winter of 1903-4 it was 19, an increase of 110 per cent. The number of students in attendance in 1891 was 755, and in the winter of 1903-4 it was 3,010, an increase of 300 per cent. This number is equalled, if not exceeded, by those attending private



technical schools. In Saxony, which plays almost the part of an incubator of middle-grade technical students, the number of schools for machine construction in 1884 was 2, with 524 students. In 1902 there were 6 schools, with 2,687 pupils, an increase of 200 per cent in schools and 410 per cent in pupils. The number of schools for the building trades in 1885 was 5, with 469 pupils, and in 1902 it was 10, with 1,342 pupils, or an increase of 100 per cent in schools and 185 per cent in pupils.

#### EFFECT UPON WAGES.

It is apparent that the increase in numbers in the technical ranks has gone far beyond the demand — 200 per cent against about 50 per cent on the average. The consequence of this overproduction in technical resources is a constantly diminishing rate of wages, as the law of supply and demand applies here as elsewhere. Wage statistics, which were compiled from inquiries made of 20,000 members of the German technical association and which were presented in the Reichstag by Dr. Heinz Potthoff, a member, show the following picture: Almost one-fourth of all city and other trained appointees receive a salary under 1,800 marks (\$428.40) per year, 35 per cent receive from 1,800 to 2,400 marks (\$428.40 to \$571.20), only 24 per cent receive from 2,400 to 3,000 marks (\$571.20 to \$714), and only 19 per cent receive over 3,000 marks (\$714). It is to be noted that among those considered was a large number of office men who are engaged with public officials, which gives to the total a more favorable aspect, because among officials so employed a rate of salary from 2,100 marks (\$499.80) to 2,700 marks (\$642.60) generally prevails.

From all this it appears that for an increase of technical resources and schools there is at present no pressing demand. There is an increased and, as it were, artificially created proletariat, and the various industries are not in a position to pay for these superfluous powers.

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#### AUSTRO-BOHEMIAN TEXTILES.

CONSUL MCFARLAND, of Reichenberg, Austria, under date of December 15, 1905, furnishes an interesting report on the textile industries of Austro-Bohemia and a history of their early establishment in Bohemia. His report follows:

The well-traveled American generally sizes up Bohemia, the beautiful northern province of the Austrian Empire, as a pleasure resort. Carlsbad, Marienbad, Franzensbad, Johannesbad, Liebwurda, and Teplitz he understands. He also admires the mountains and the narrow picturesque valleys through which he is

hurled along, and has heard something of the Bohemian glass manufactured around Haida and Neuwelt, but even he would be as surprised as most readers of this article to learn that, nestled among the mountains and along the streams that furnish water for power, more textile factories exist than are to be found within a similar space in entire Europe, that the common goods produced are to be found distributed among the peasant classes of Europe and the Orient, and that the finer goods, while little known in America, at least as of Bohemian origin, find their way into the courts of Old-World aristocracy.

#### POPULOUS AND INDUSTRIAL.

In this instance "Austria" means "Bohemia," for outside of Brünn, Moravia, Bielitz and Jägerndorf, Silesia, the entire textile industry is contained not only within the geographical borders of Bohemia, but within the rough and mountainous country of the northern half — the so-called "Deutsch-Böhmen," of which Reichenberg is the commercial center, its handelskammer, or chamber of commerce, controlling matters as only an Austrian or German or Russian Government institution can do. Imagine this mountain country, with an area of only about 4,800 square miles, containing a population of over 2,000,000, scattered in small towns and villages and clustered around the factories along every good-sized stream, perhaps remote from railroads, and a very good idea of Bohemian industrial conditions is obtained. Reichenberg, with 35,000, is the largest town. There are 10 other towns with from 20,000 to 30,000 population, 21 with from 10,000 to 20,000, 7 with from 5,000 to 10,000, and about 800 dorfs of from 1,000 to 3,000, the remainder being peasants, who not infrequently — father, mother, sons, and daughters — are also operatives in some near-by factory.

#### COTTON AND OTHER TEXTILE MILLS.

Within this district are 74,548 manufacturing concerns, the textile industry being represented as follows: Preparation of spinning material, 194; spinning and weaving wool and half wool, 363; spinning and weaving cotton, 1,206; linen mills, 483; hosiery factories, 598; yarn refining, 639. In this textile division are 2,000,000 spindles and 77,991 mechanical looms, the majority, of course, in the cotton branch. In the whole of Austria nearly 4,000,000 spindles are in operation, and the annual consumption of cotton is about 100,000 tons, three-fourths of it being American cotton. It will probably be an eye-opener to the American manufacturer to state that the total horse-power thus utilized in Deutsch-Böhmen approximates only 216,177. Here enter the elements of cheap labor and the house industry, which it is not within the province of this article to discuss, but against which America's tariff is certainly the only protection. This cheap

labor — child, female, male, from 20 to 60 cents per day of twelve hours — is the foundation stone of Bohemia's industries. It enables factories to exist and to multiply, as they have done for hundreds of years and are still doing. Institute here the American wage scale and to-morrow not a single factory could open its doors. How these wage-workers live, and what their end, what the fate of their children and their children's children, is another story.

#### EARLY USE OF FLAX.

Flax naturally started Bohemian textiles. Every peasant raised it; every house had its hand loom, and, as early as the fourteenth century, Bohemian flax-spun linens are recorded as entering the Hamburg market. Every district then, and for a long time afterwards, was controlled by the local count, or "Obrigkeit," who demanded his "Stuhlgeld." This was the day of house industry, an industry which developed greatly notwithstanding the blight of war, because, not being an agricultural country, it furnished both occupation and livelihood for the people. Gradually vereins or associations of weavers were established, each with its meister or chief, who ruled his employees and governed wages and apprentices much as the feudal lords did their retainers around their castles. It is recorded that in 1748 there were in Reichenberg 330 meisters, with, of course, as many guilds. The growing industry attracted government attention, and various regulations were introduced. In 1796 the number of guilds had increased to 578, producing 20,536 shocks of linen. A foreign market became necessary on account of overproduction. Goods were carried out to Berlin and other foreign cities, and early in the eighteenth century one of the leading weavers emigrated to Berlin, establishing there the first concern for the finer fabrics. Not until the nineteenth century were factories, with organized and consolidated labor, established on a large scale, largely supplanting the single-loom house industry. But even now in the Riesengebirge, or Giant Mountains, hand looms may still be seen in operation. The present factories, immense modern concerns producing all grades of goods, but chiefly the cheaper qualities suitable for the common, continental markets, are largely grouped around Rochlitz, Trautenau, Hohenelbe, and Eipel. The spinning concerns number about twenty-five, the weaving about fifty, and the latter understand thoroughly how to utilize cotton admixtures to suit market demands.

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#### MERINO ASSOCIATIONS CONSOLIDATE.

An important and significant event in the history of the sheep industry of the States of Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia and, indeed, of the entire country, occurred January 11, when it

was decided to combine four of the leading Merino record associations — the Improved Delaine Association, the National Delaine Association, the Standard Delaine Association and the International Association — into one organization to be known as the American Merino-Delaine Record Association. It is stated that the four organizations have a membership of five hundred, and that many accessions have been promised.

The incorporators were R. K. Willis, Delaware, O.; G. E. Helsel, Herring, O.; A. T. Gamber, Wakeman, O.; C. S. Chapman, Marysville, O.; J. W. Carpenter, Quaker City, O.; J. C. Wood, Delaware, O.; U. C. Brouse, Kendallville, Ind. The officers are R. K. Willis, president; J. D. Irwin, vice-president; S. M. Cleaver, Delaware, O., secretary, and C. S. Chapman, treasurer. The board of directors are G. A. Henry, Marysville, F. W. Haverstock, Kendallville, Ind., J. W. Carpenter, J. C. Wood, C. H. Bell, Ashley, O.

Mr. W. N. Cowden, of Guernsey county, Ohio, is authority for the statement that all sheep tracing back to the Colonel Humphreys, Dickinson, and later importations up to the stopping of exportations by the Spanish Government in 1825, will be eligible for membership. Sheep coming to this country by way of France, Saxony, or Silesia will be denied registration, though in the case of the Franco-American this exception was made: that any sheep now recorded in any of the old record associations should be recorded in the new association, but no new blood or crosses of the Franco-Americans shall be admitted to record. Another stipulation of the new association is that sheep may be recorded as Merino A, to include the wrinkly, greasy Merino; as Merino B, to include the sheep with only a heavy neck and rosette at tail and bearing true Delaine or combing wool; as Merino C, to include the smooth body and bearing long, fine XX and above and XXX wool.

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#### NATIONAL WOOL GROWERS' ASSOCIATION.

THE annual convention of the National Wool Growers' Association was held in Denver, Col., January 30.

The following officers were elected:

President, the Hon. Francis E. Warren; Western vice-president, Dr. J. M. Wilson, Wyoming; Eastern vice-president, Mor-



timer Levering, Chicago, Ill.; treasurer, A. J. Knollin, Kansas City; secretary, George S. Walker, Cheyenne, Wyo.

The following executive committee was named :

Arizona, E. S. Gosney; California, H. A. Jastro; Colorado, Donald McIntosh; Idaho, Fred Gooding; Illinois, Mortimer Levering; Montana, T. C. Power; Nebraska, Robert Taylor; New Mexico, Sol. Luna; New York, G. Howard Davison; Ohio, Dwight Lincoln; Utah, Heber A. Smith; Washington, Frank M. Rothrock; Wyoming, William Daley; Oregon, Douglas Belts; Texas, James McLymont.

## DECISIONS OF THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT ON THE WOOLEN TARIFF.

(8480.)

### *Linseed-Oil Bagging.*

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, October 17, 1887.

SIR: Your letter of the 4th ultimo was duly received, in which you submit the appeal (5438 *p*) of Messrs. C. H. Wyman & Co. from your assessment of duty at the rate of 35 cents per pound and 35 per cent ad valorem on certain linseed-oil bagging imported by them at your port August 24, 1887, and claimed to be dutiable at the rate of 40 per cent ad valorem, under the provision in T.I., 342, for "bagging . . . composed wholly or in part of flax . . . or other material."

The fabric in question, it appears, is used in the manufacture of linseed oil, the seed being enclosed in bags or envelopes of this material and subjected to pressure, and upon investigation it is found that the bagging is composed entirely of camel's hair, and not in part of wool, as reported by you.

The fabric being commercially known as bagging, and used as materials for bags, the Department is of opinion that it is entitled to entry as "bagging," at the rate of 40 per cent ad valorem, under T.I., 342, above quoted, which is more specific than the provision in T.I., 363, for "all manufactures of every description composed wholly or in part of . . . the hair of the alpaca, goat, or other animals."

You are therefore authorized to readjust the entry at that rate and to take measures for refunding the excess of duty.

Respectfully yours,

I. H. MAYNARD,

*Assistant Secretary.*

SURVEYOR OF CUSTOMS, *St. Louis, Mo.*

(8550.)

*Linseed-Oil Bagging, or Press-Cloth.*

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, November 23, 1887.

SIR: Referring to Department's letter addressed to you on the 17th ultimo (Synopsis 8480), concerning the appeal (5438 p) of Messrs. C. H. Wyman & Co. from your decision assessing duty on certain so-called "linseed-oil bagging," you are informed that after a further and more careful investigation of the matter, it is ascertained that the merchandise in question is neither commercially known as bagging nor capable of being used for the same purpose as bagging, but that it is commercially known and sold as "press-cloth," and is used by candle manufacturers, chemists, and oil manufacturers in hydraulic presses for filtering purposes, expressing oil, etc.

Such being the case, you are informed that Department's said decision of the 17th ultimo (Synopsis 8480), which was based upon an erroneous statement of facts, is hereby revoked, and that such merchandise, which is imported as fabrics composed sometimes wholly of camel's hair, and at other times wholly or in part of wool, worsted, etc., should be classified, under the proper provisions of Schedule K, either as manufactures of hair, or manufactures in part of wool, worsted, etc., at the rates of duty therein prescribed.

You will be governed accordingly, and in future importations of merchandise of this character, subject the fabrics to the proper rates of duty.

Respectfully yours,

I. H. MAYNARD,

*Assistant Secretary.*SURVEYOR OF CUSTOMS, *St. Louis, Mo.*

(10505. — G.A. 155.)

*Hair (press) cloth.*

Before the Board of United States General Appraisers at New York, November 26, 1890.

In the matter of the protest, No. 865 a, of R. F. Downing & Co., against the rate of duty assessed upon certain "cattle hair cloth," imported per "Normannia," July 29, 1890, at the port of New York. Opinion by Sharretts, *General Appraiser*.

NEW YORK, November 28, 1890.

Duty was assessed upon the merchandise at 10 cents per pound and 35 per cent ad valorem, in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 363, Schedule K, of the act of March 3, 1883. Against this rate of duty the importers protested, claiming that the proper classification of the merchandise was either as hair cloth, at 30 per cent ad valorem, in accordance with paragraph 445, or as carpets, dutiable at 40 per cent ad valorem, under paragraph 378.

The local appraiser at this port states that the merchandise in question consists of a manufacture of cattle's hair, commercially known as press cloth, used in the process of manufacturing linseed oil. Answering to this description, it differs from the material which was the subject of a decision by the Treasury Department, dated November 23, 1877 (Synopsis 8550), wherein the substance was described as a manufacture composed of wool and of camel's hair. In the present case the material is a distinct article of merchandise other than the ordinary kind of cloth covered by the wool and woollen schedule of the act of 1883. It is not made from the hair of the alpaca, goat, or any similar animal, but is admitted both by the Government and the appellants to be a manufacture of cattle's hair. Hair cloth and all other manufactures of hair are specifically provided for in paragraph 445, consequently the assimilating clause of Section 2499 of the Revised Statutes of the United States does not apply.

The only question at issue is whether the provision of paragraph 363 can operate to withdraw the merchandise from paragraph 445. We think not. The Supreme Court, in the case of *Arthur v. Butterfield*, held that certain manufactures, of which 80 per cent was goat's hair, fell within the scope of the paragraph of the act of 1870 [1890], which provided for manufactures of hair in precisely the same terms as paragraph 445 of the act of 1883. Following the ruling laid down — the decision cited — we are of the opinion that the alternative claim of the importers that the merchandise should have been assessed for duty at the rate of 30 per cent ad valorem, under paragraph 445, instead of 10 cents per pound and 35 per cent ad valorem, under paragraph 363, is sustained.

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(12202. — G.A. 1016.)

*Press cloth.*

NEW YORK, November 16, 1891.

Before the U.S. General Appraisers. In the matter of the protests, 12784a and 12785a, of Messrs. R. F. Downing & Co., against the decision of the collector of customs at New York as to the rate and amount of duties chargeable on certain press cloth) manufacture of animals' hair), imported per "India," June 10, 1891. Opinion by Sharretts, *General Appraiser*.

The appraiser reports that "the merchandise in question consists of a manufacture of animal hair commercially known as press cloth, and is used in the manufacture of linseed oil."

Duty was assessed upon the goods at 33 cents per pound and 40 per cent ad valorem, under paragraph 392, as a manufacture made wholly or in part of wool, worsted, the hair of the camel, goat, alpaca, or other animals, valued at not more than 30 cents per pound.

The appellants claim: (1) That the goods are dutiable at 50 per cent ad valorem as carpets or carpeting, under paragraph 407; (2) that it is

dutiable at 8 cents per square yard as hair cloth known as crinoline cloth.

We make the following finding of facts relative to the goods :

- (1) That they are not carpets or carpeting.
- (2) That they are not known as crinoline cloth.

Based upon these findings, we are forced to overrule the protest, and the action of the collector must stand.

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(21200. — G.A. 4448.)

*Hair press cloth.*

NEW YORK, May 29, 1899.

Hair press cloth, to come within the provisions of paragraph 431 of the act of July 24, 1897, must be made of the same material as that covered by the other textiles included in that schedule, to wit, horse hair or the like.

An article made from camel's hair and used as a press cloth is not included in paragraph 431, but, being a manufacture of wool, as defined by paragraphs 351 and 383, is assessable under paragraph 366.

In the matter of the protest, 42490f-14055, of American Express Company, against the decision of the collector of customs at New York, N.Y., as to the rate and amount of duties chargeable on certain merchandise, imported per "Umbria," and entered October 17, 1898. Opinion by Fischer, *General Appraiser*.

The American Express Company imported per steamer "Umbria" merchandise described in invoice as "one bale hair press cloth for bagging," which is conceded to be made of camel's hair. The collector of the port of New York assessed the duty provided for by paragraph 366, and the importer paid the same under the following protest :

We claim that the importation consisted of hair press cloth, and is dutiable at 20 cents per square yard under paragraph 431 of the revenue law.

The article in question here is commercially known as "camel's-hair press cloth," and it was purchased by the importer as such. It is made wholly of camel's hair, and is used for making bags in which the crushed cotton seed is inclosed while in the process of being pressed to obtain the oil from it. In view of the use to which it is put it might be called bagging as well as press cloth. "It is pure camel's hair, both warp and filling." In the nature of a bagging it is used to wrap around cakes of linseed or cotton seed or other seed in the manufacture of oil; and it is put, next to the cloth made of horse hair, under a hydraulic press, and the oil is squeezed out of the seed and strained into channels and from that into a reservoir.

There is press cloth made of horse hair and cattle hair; and horse-hair press cloth is very largely made and used by the largest linseed-oil and cotton-seed oil manufacturers in this country. This horse-hair cloth is known as *hair press cloth*, although by reason of its shape it is also sometimes called hair mat, just as camel's-hair press cloth is some-



times spoken of as bagging. In using the horse-hair press cloth, one cloth is put in at the top of the plate, and one at the bottom of the plate.

The horse-hair press cloth is used as a cushion to save the camel's hair, and thus to save expense.

The tariff legislation of Congress has uniformly treated the hair of the camel as a wool, and expressed the policy of taxing it in association with the hair of the sheep and at the same rate.

The act of March 3, 1883, made no specific reference to the hair of the camel. Its Schedule K, devoted to "wools and woolens," classified together "all wools, hair of the alpaca, goat, and other like animals." Its free list contained: "Hair, horse or cattle, and hair of all kinds, cleaned or uncleaned, drawn or undrawn, but unmanufactured, not specially enumerated or provided for in this act;" and under that provision it was construed that the hair of the camel was included in the free list.

The act of October 1, 1890, in the first paragraph (paragraph 375) of its Schedule K, "wool and manufactures of wool," finds the words "hair of the camel" inserted between the word "wools" and the word "goat," and then treats the hair of the camel throughout the act according to the wool policy and treatment. On its free list (paragraph 604) we find "hair of horse, cattle, and other animals, cleaned or uncleaned, drawn or undrawn, but unmanufactured, not specially provided for in this act."

By the act of August 28, 1894, we find hair of the camel and its manufactures again in association with the hair of the sheep, and subjected to a continuation of the wool policy; while the "hair of horse, cattle, and other animals, cleaned or uncleaned, drawn or undrawn, not specially provided for in this act" (paragraph 504), are on the free list; and "hair cloth known as 'crinoline cloth,' 6 cents per square yard" (paragraph 333), and "hair cloth known as 'hair seating,' 20 cents per square yard" (paragraph 334).

In the act of July 24, 1897, in its Schedule K, "wool and manufactures of wool," we again find hair of the camel in association with the hair of the sheep, continuing, to be subjected to the wool policy and treatment of high duty, while the free list continues to contain (paragraph 571), "hair of horse, cattle, and other animals, cleaned or uncleaned, drawn or undrawn, but unmanufactured, not specially provided for in this act;" and Schedule N continues to contain (paragraph 431) "hair cloth known as 'crinoline cloth,' 10 cents per square yard; hair cloth known as 'hair seating,'" and added "and hair press cloth, 20 cents per square yard."

The rate of duty thus put on "hair press cloth" is identical with that on "hair seating."

The act of July 24, 1897, provides a statutory definition of the hair of the camel as a wool.

Paragraph 348 is as follows :

All wools, hair of the *camel*, goat, alpaca, and other like animals shall be divided, . . . in the following classes :

Paragraph 351 :

Class 3, that is to say, Donskoi, native South American, Cordova, Valparaiso, native Smyrna, *Russian camel's hair*, and all such wools of like character as have been heretofore usually imported into the United States from Turkey, Greece, Syria, and elsewhere, excepting improved wools hereinafter provided for.

No question whatever would be made by any one that the article in question here was within Schedule K to be treated and assessed as a manufacture of wool, were it not for an alleged literal application of the new words above quoted, " and hair press cloth, 20 cents per square yard " (paragraph 431).

These words do not and cannot refer to " camel's-hair press cloth ;" and they do refer to horse-hair press cloth.

Paragraph 383 is a follows :

Wherever, in any schedule of this act, the word " wool " is used in connection with a manufactured article of which it is a component material, it shall be held to include wool or hair of the sheep, camel, goat, alpaca or other animal, whether manufactured by the woolen, worsted, felt, or any other process.

The courts have uniformly held that general descriptive terms are often restricted in their meaning by reason of their collocation with other words and phrases, and have applied the doctrine of *noscitur a sociis*. The grouping of subjects under certain schedules, each with a different title, shows the intention of Congress in tariff acts to fix a class and character for the articles intended to be covered thereby, and forbids a technical definition of them in contravention of that grouping. Thus in this case, all goods made from camel's hair, being decreed by the act to be wool, must come under the wool schedule, while " hair press cloth," coming within the same schedule as " crinoline " and " hair seating," the product of horse hair, must be limited to such textiles (*Hollender v. Magone*, 149 U.S. 586. *Dingelstedt v. United States*, 91 Fed. Rep., 112. See also, Judge Story in *Adams v. Bancroft*, 1 Sumner, p. 386. G.A. 1016).

The protest is overruled and we affirm the assessment of duty.

(T.D. 26489.)

*Hair press cloth.*CALDWELL *v.* UNITED STATES.

U.S. Circuit Court, Southern District of New York. June 1, 1905.

Suit 3894.

HAIR PRESS CLOTH OF CAMEL AND GOAT HAIR — MANUFACTURES OF WOOL. — Hair press cloth of camel and goat hair is not dutiable under paragraph 366, tariff act of 1897, as manufactures of wool "not specially provided for," but under paragraph 431 as "hair press cloth."

On application for review of a decision of the Board of United States General Appraisers.

The decision below was reported as Abstract 4605 (T.D. 26035), and affirmed the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York on importations made by E. & W. H. Caldwell.

These importations consisted of hair press cloth made from camel and goat hair, and were classified as "manufactures . . . of wool, not specially provided for" under paragraph 366, tariff act of 1897, by virtue of paragraph 383, providing:

Whenever, in any schedule of this act, the word "wool" is used in connection with a manufactured article of which it is a component material, it shall be held to include wool or hair of the sheep, camel, goat, alpaca, or other animal. . . .

The importers contended that the goods should have been classified under the provision for "hair press cloth" in paragraph 431, which reads as follows:

431. Hair cloth, known as "crinoline" cloth, ten cents per square yard; hair cloth, known as "hair seating," and hair press cloth, twenty cents per square yard.

A similar contention was overruled by the Board in an earlier case, *In re American Express Company*, G.A. 4448 (T.D. 21200), where it was held that hair press cloth, in order to come within paragraph 431, must be made of the same material as that composing the other textiles enumerated in that paragraph, namely, horse hair, and that goods made of camel hair would therefore be excluded. This decision was followed by the Board in the present case, the opinion in which reads as follows:

LUNT, *General Appraiser*: We find that the protestants imported into the port of New York, as shown in the schedule, certain merchandise upon which duty was assessed at 33 cents per pound and 50 per cent ad valorem under paragraph 366 of the tariff act of 1897, and the same is claimed to be dutiable at 20 cents per square yard under paragraph 431 of said act. We find that said merchandise is a cloth made from camel and goat hair; that it is valued at not more than 40 cents per pound; that it is used in presses for the manufacture of stearin for use in candle making, and probably in other hydraulic presses. The questions involved have been passed upon by the Board in G.A. 4448 (T.D. 21200) and we refer to and adopt the language of that opinion in these

cases, and in accordance therewith the protests are overruled and the decisions of the collector affirmed.

*Walden & Webster* (*Henry J. Webster* of counsel), for the importers.

*D. Frank Lloyd*, assistant United States attorney, for the United States.

TOWNSEND, *Circuit Judge*: The merchandise in question consists of cloth made of hair adapted to be used in hydraulic presses. It is in fact a hair press cloth. It is so known commercially, and was so invoiced and sold. The Board of General Appraisers, however, apparently basing its decision upon evidence taken in another case as to other merchandise, adopted the language of their opinion therein and assessed the article at 33 cents per pound and 50 per cent ad valorem, under paragraph 366 of the act of 1897, as a manufacture of wool not specifically provided for. The importers protested on the ground that the cloth was dutiable *eo nomine* as hair press cloth at 20 cents per yard under paragraph 431 of said act.

The government introduced no testimony in this case before the Board. Paragraph 366 provides only for manufactures of wool not specially provided for. Paragraph 431 provides specifically for hair press cloth *eo nomine*. The construction given to these words by the Board would seem to deprive this specific provision of all effect, inasmuch as the mats made of horse hair and cattle hair appear to be included under a separate designation. The assessment by the Board would operate to impose an ad valorem duty on this cloth of between 300 and 400 per cent.

The decision of the Board of General Appraisers is reversed.

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(T.D. 26549.)

*Hair press cloth.*

Certain hair press cloth held not to be dutiable as manufactures of wool, but properly dutiable as hair press cloth under paragraph 431, tariff act of 1897. — *Caldwell v. United States* (T.D. 26489) acquiesced in.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, June 28, 1905.

SIR: The Department is in receipt of a report of the United States attorney for the southern district of New York, in which he states that the case of *E. & W. H. Caldwell v. United States* (suit 3894, reported in T.D. 26489) was recently decided in the United States Circuit Court for that district adversely to the government.

The merchandise in suit consisted of cloth, made of hair adapted for use in hydraulic presses, known as hair press cloth. Duties were assessed thereon as manufactures of wool, at the rate of 33 cents per pound and 50 per cent ad valorem, under paragraph 366 of the tariff act of July 24, 1897. The importers protested, claiming the merchandise to be dutiable at the rate of 20 cents per square yard, as hair press



cloth, under paragraph 431 of the same act, which claim was sustained by the United States Circuit Court in this case, on the evidence presented.

The attorney-general advises the Department that no further proceedings will be directed in this case. You are therefore hereby authorized to forward the usual certified statement for refund of the duties exacted in excess in settlement thereof.

Respectfully,

JAMES B. REYNOLDS,  
*Assistant Secretary.*

(17955.)

COLLECTOR OF CUSTOMS, *New York.*

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(T.D. 26569.)

*Hair press cloth.*

Hair press cloth made of camel's hair or dutiable goat hair not entitled to entry under paragraph 431, tariff act of 1897. — T. D. 26549 explained.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, July 11, 1905.

SIR: On June 1, 1905, the circuit court for the southern district of New York in *Caldwell v. United States*, admitted certain "hair press cloth" at 20 cents per square yard. There is some doubt as to the material of which this particular cloth was manufactured. If made of horsehair, or goat hair other than angora, alpaca, and mohair, the decision was evidently correct. If the goods contain camel's hair, or dutiable goat hair of any description, the decision was, in my opinion, incorrect, and should not be followed.

In view of the unsatisfactory condition of the record, the Department will not take an appeal, but you should be governed by the spirit of this letter. I have written the Board of General Appraisers requesting that if another case arises they give the Department at Washington notice, that it may be prepared to properly present the case before the Board and on appeal before the circuit court.

Respectfully,

LESLIE M. SHAW,  
*Secretary.*

(17955.)

COLLECTOR OF CUSTOMS, *New York.*

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(T.D. 26634 — G.A. 6124.)

*Press cloth composed of hair.*

United States General Appraisers, New York, July 29, 1905.

Hair press cloth containing no wool, nor hair of the angora goat, alpaca, or other like animal, is dutiable at the rate of 20 cents per square yard under paragraph 431, tariff act of 1897, and not at the rate of 33 cents per pound and 50 per cent ad valorem under para-

graph 366 of that act — *Caldwell v. United States*, reported in T.D. 26489, acquiesced in by the Treasury Department in T.D. 26549 (which acquiescence extends only to merchandise of the above description), cited.

In the matter of protests 150099, etc., of R. F. Downing & Co., against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York.

Before Board 1 (Lunt, Sharretts, and McClelland, General Appraisers; signed by Sharretts and De Vries, G.A.).

SHARRETTS, *General Appraiser*: The goods in question, as shown by the official sample in the case, consist of a woven fabric composed of hair, assessed with duty at the rate of 33 cents per pound and 50 per cent ad valorem under paragraph 366, tariff act of 1897, and claimed dutiable by the importers at the rate of 20 cents per square yard under paragraph 431.

Investigation shows, and we find as a fact, that the merchandise is known as hair press cloth, and that it contains no wool, nor does it contain any hair of the angora goat, alpaca, or other like animal. On the authority of a decision of the circuit court for the southern district of New York, in *Caldwell v. United States*, reported in T.D. 26489, and acquiesced in by the Treasury Department in T.D. 26549 with regard to the merchandise of the description now before us, we sustain the protest and reverse the collector's decision.

The acquiescence by the Treasury Department, however, does not apply to press cloth composed wholly or in part of wool, or of the hair of the angora goat, alpaca, or other like animal.

# COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF IMPORTS OF WOOL. 107

## COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE IMPORTS OF WOOL AND MANUFACTURES OF WOOL FOR THE YEARS ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1904 AND 1905.

ARTICLES AND COUNTRIES.	Quantities for Twelve Months ending December 31.		Values (foreign) for Twelve Months ending December 31.	
	1904.	1905.	1904.	1905.
<b>WOOL, HAIR OF THE CAMEL, GOAT, ALPACA, ETC., AND MANUFACTURES OF :</b>				
<b>UNMANUFACTURED—</b>				
Class 1—Clothing (dutiable)—	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>		
Imported from—				
United Kingdom . . . . .	24,342,655	33,595,338	\$4,955,694	\$8,019,678
France . . . . .	651,500	612,122	142,110	140,550
South America . . . . .	17,750,607	42,587,321	2,792,465	8,848,628
Asia and Oceania . . . . .	11,169,813	28,177,805	2,513,634	7,029,160
Other countries . . . . .	2,755,918	5,964,919	573,269	1,350,049
Total . . . . .	56,670,493	110,937,505	\$10,977,082	\$25,388,065
Class 2—Combing (dutiable)—				
Imported from—				
United Kingdom . . . . .	18,732,075	15,363,170	\$4,250,592	\$4,044,134
Other Europe . . . . .	1,705,563	1,614,595	462,877	459,350
British North America . . . . .	1,758,706	1,591,062	364,947	402,328
South America . . . . .	632,886	2,397,792	185,159	631,091
Asia and Oceania . . . . .	19,964	193,190	5,288	50,859
Other countries . . . . .		31,636		8,939
Total . . . . .	22,849,194	21,191,445	\$5,258,803	\$5,596,701
Class 3—Carpet (dutiable)—				
Imported from—				
United Kingdom . . . . .	22,734,193	19,838,530	\$3,375,091	\$3,409,092
France . . . . .	3,369,852	3,205,551	441,709	502,585
Germany . . . . .	647,937	1,478,535	69,831	241,726
Other Europe . . . . .	32,384,559	38,270,819	3,895,840	5,195,905
British North America . . . . .	11	17,992	2	2,408
South America . . . . .	9,621,822	7,759,957	1,025,694	999,886
Chinese Empire . . . . .	24,390,829	27,157,463	2,531,849	3,204,613
Other Asia and Oceania . . . . .	13,890,879	16,767,442	1,778,727	2,270,376
Other countries . . . . .	12,914	196,150	706	20,782
Total . . . . .	107,052,996	114,692,439	\$13,119,459	\$15,847,373
Total unmanufactured . . . . .	186,572,683	246,821,389	\$29,355,344	\$46,832,139
<b>MANUFACTURES OF—</b>				
Carpets and Carpeting (dutiable)—	<i>Sq. Yards.</i>	<i>Sq. Yards.</i>		
Imported from—				
United Kingdom . . . . .	157,627	240,890	\$349,583	\$569,548
Other Europe . . . . .	399,542	734,570	1,504,434	2,845,065
Japan . . . . .	509	549	1,246	977
Other Asia and Oceania . . . . .	103,180	124,507	370,397	396,808
Other countries . . . . .	6,550	3,214	9,719	10,585
Total . . . . .	667,408	1,103,730	\$2,235,379	\$3,822,973

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF IMPORTS OF WOOL, ETC. —  
*Concluded.*

ARTICLES AND COUNTRIES.	Quantities for Twelve Months ending December 31.		Values (foreign) for Twelve Months ending December 31.	
	1904.	1905.	1904.	1905.
Clothing, ready-made, and other wearing apparel, except shawls and knit fabrics (dutiable) . . .	<i>Pounds.</i> . . . . .	<i>Pounds.</i> . . . . .	\$1,303,965	\$1,551,930
CLOTHS—(dutiable)— Imported from—				
United Kingdom . . . . .	1,962,186	2,267,821	\$2,147,421	\$2,603,998
Austria-Hungary . . . . .	153,125	287,112	138,722	260,526
Belgium . . . . .	196,538	296,532	192,363	235,612
France . . . . .	165,275	164,011	208,748	204,836
Germany . . . . .	1,156,436	1,419,798	1,106,235	1,338,422
Other Europe . . . . .	5,755	5,539	6,557	5,675
Other countries . . . . .	5,848	9,233	7,037	9,436
Total . . . . .	3,645,163	4,450,046	\$3,807,083	\$4,708,505
DRESS GOODS, WOMEN'S AND CHILDREN'S—(dutiable)	<i>Sq. Yards.</i>	<i>Sq. Yards.</i>		
Imported from—				
United Kingdom . . . . .	26,581,140	35,821,131	\$4,373,319	\$5,926,618
France . . . . .	9,476,224	9,498,309	2,339,333	2,187,497
Germany . . . . .	4,815,425	6,741,279	1,067,865	1,628,391
Other Europe . . . . .	185,527	222,883	57,991	68,587
Other countries . . . . .	30,479	20,051	7,590	5,051
Total . . . . .	41,088,795	52,303,653	\$7,846,098	\$9,816,144
Knit fabrics (dutiable) . . . . .	<i>Pounds.</i> . . . . .	<i>Pounds.</i> . . . . .	\$266,454	\$250,374
Mungo, flecks, shoddy, noils, wool extracts, rags, and waste (dutiable) . . . . .	169,292	1,024,955	46,859	356,187
Shawls (dutiable) . . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	65,780	51,479
Yarns (dutiable) . . . . .	162,061	200,600	112,049	150,154
All other (dutiable) . . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	448,834	665,996
Total manufactures . . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	\$16,132,501	\$21,373,742



QUARTERLY REPORT OF THE BOSTON WOOL MARKET  
FOR OCTOBER, NOVEMBER, AND DECEMBER, 1905.

DOMESTIC WOOLS. (BENEDICT & LIVINGSTONE.)

	1905.			1904.
	October.	November.	December.	December.
<b>OHIO, PENNSYLVANIA, AND WEST VIRGINIA.</b>				
(WASHED.)				
XX and above . . . . .	36	35	35	35 @ 35½
X . . . . .	34	33 @ 34	33 @ 34	32 @ 33
½ Blood . . . . .	41	40 @ 41	39 @ 40	38
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	41	40 @ 41	39 @ 40	39
Fine Delaine . . . . .	38	37	36½ @ 37	37 @ 37½
(UNWASHED.)				
Fine . . . . .	27	27	27	24 @ 24½
½ Blood . . . . .	34 @ 35	34 @ 35	34 @ 35	31 @ 32
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	34 @ 35	34 @ 35	33 @ 35	32 @ 33
Fine Delaine . . . . .	30	30	29	27 @ 27½
<b>MICHIGAN, WISCONSIN, NEW YORK, ETC.</b>				
(WASHED.)				
Fine . . . . . (not quotable)				
½ Blood . . . . .	40 @ 41	39 @ 40	38 @ 39	37
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	40 @ 41	39 @ 40	38 @ 39	38
Fine Delaine . . . . .	37	36	35 @ 36	35 @ 36
(UNWASHED.)				
Fine . . . . .	25	25	25	21 @ 22
½ Blood . . . . .	32 @ 33	32	32	30 @ 31
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	33 @ 34	33	33	31 @ 32
Fine Delaine . . . . .	29	28 @ 29	28 @ 29	25 @ 26
<b>KENTUCKY AND INDIANA.</b>				
(UNWASHED.)				
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	34 @ 35	34 @ 35	34 @ 35	31 @ 33
Braid . . . . .	30	30	30	29 @ 30
<b>MISSOURI, IOWA, AND ILLINOIS.</b>				
(UNWASHED.)				
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	33 @ 34	33 @ 34	33 @ 34	30 @ 32
Braid . . . . .	30	30	30	28 @ 29
<b>TEXAS.</b>				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
Spring, fine, 12 months . . . . .	74 @ 75	74 @ 75	74 @ 75	65 @ 67
"    "    6 to 8 months . . . . .	70 @ 72	70 @ 71	69 @ 70	57 @ 58
"    medium, 12 months . . . . .	68 @ 70	66 @ 68	65 @ 67	59 @ 60
"    "    6 to 8 months . . . . .	65 @ 67	63 @ 65	63 @ 64	54 @ 55
Fall, fine . . . . .	62 @ 63	61 @ 62	61 @ 62	55 @ 56
"    medium . . . . .	60 @ 61	59 @ 60	59 @ 60	52 @ 53
<b>CALIFORNIA.</b>				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
Spring, Northern, free, 12 months . . . . .	73 @ 74	73 @ 74	72 @ 73	63 @ 65
"    "    "    6 to 8 months, . . . . .	69 @ 70	68 @ 69	67 @ 68	57 @ 58
Fall, free . . . . .	62 @ 63	61 @ 62	61 @ 62	54 @ 55
"    defective . . . . .	48 @ 50	48 @ 50	48 @ 50	42 @ 47
<b>TERRITORY WOOL: Montana, Wyoming, Utah, Idaho, Oregon, etc.</b>				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
Staple, fine and fine medium . . . . .	73 @ 76	73 @ 75	73 @ 75	68 @ 70
"    medium . . . . .	68 @ 70	67 @ 70	67 @ 70	62 @ 63
Clothing, fine . . . . .	72 @ 73	71 @ 72	70 @ 72	64 @ 65
"    "    medium . . . . .	70 @ 72	70 @ 71	69 @ 70	60 @ 61
"    medium . . . . .	66 @ 70	65 @ 67	65 @ 67	58 @ 60
<b>NEW MEXICO. (Spring.)</b>				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
No. 1 . . . . .	68 @ 70	67 @ 69	67 @ 69	61 @ 62
No. 2 . . . . .	64 @ 66	63 @ 65	63 @ 65	56 @ 57
No. 3 . . . . .	53 @ 55	52 @ 54	52 @ 54	50 @ 51
No. 4 . . . . .	44 @ 45	43 @ 44	43 @ 44	not quoted.
<b>NEW MEXICO. (Fall.)</b>				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
No. 1 . . . . .	62 @ 63	62 @ 63	60 @ 62	55 @ 57
No. 2 . . . . .	58 @ 59	58 @ 59	57 @ 59	53 @ 54
No. 3 . . . . .	51 @ 52	51 @ 52	50 @ 52	47 @ 50
No. 4 . . . . .	47 @ 48	47 @ 48	46 @ 47	not quoted.
<b>GEORGIA AND SOUTHERN.</b>				
Unwashed . . . . .	35 @ 36	35 @ 36	34 @ 35	30 @ 31

## DOMESTIC WOOL.

BOSTON, December 30, 1905.

The last quarter of the year is generally regarded as one of fluctuating demands and this quarter has been no exception. The larger worsted mills, having supplied themselves liberally with stock through the summer months, have not been heavy buyers, but a fair volume of business has been obtained from the woolen mills, whose orders for goods were taken comparatively late this season. There has been an entire absence of the speculation among dealers which was a conspicuous feature of the corresponding quarter last year.

While general trade has been quiet, it is noticeable that manufacturers have kept in close touch with the markets, both at home and abroad, and have been ready to absorb any lines of wool that were offered at slight concessions. The market, however, has been unusually free from the so-called "bargain" lots generally disposed of at the close of the year.

Medium and staple territory wools are in light supply and held at strong prices, while clothing grades (of which there is a fair stock) have shown some disposition to favor the buyer, as has also been the case with scoured wools.

Ohio and Michigan fleece wools have proved disappointing to the holders throughout the season, values here not having responded sufficiently to the high prices paid in the country to admit of profitable sales.

We are pleased to note toward the end of the year rather more demand for medium fleeces, also fine delaine, from some of the best worsted mill trade, which indicates that values are now established on a basis where these wools can be used to advantage in competition with the foreign importations. From present indications worsted fabrics will continue to have the call for another season, thus insuring a strong market for staple wools.

Contracting of wool on the sheep's back is still quietly going on in Idaho, Utah, and Wyoming, and this new feature of the wool business seems likely to become an established custom in the trade among some of the leading houses.

In general the year closes with a firm market on most classes of wool, the demand about keeping pace with the supply.

BENEDICT &amp; LIVINGSTONE.

PULLED WOOLS. (*Scoured basis.*) (W. A. BLANCHARD.)

	1905.			1904.
	October.	November.	December.	December.
Brushed, Extra . . . . .	72 @ 75	70 @ 75	70 @ 75	65 @ 67
Fine A . . . . .	65 @ 70	65 @ 68	65 @ 68	60 @ 63
A Super . . . . .	60 @ 63	60 @ 63	58 @ 63	58 @ 60
B Super . . . . .	54 @ 56	53 @ 55	52 @ 54	53 @ 55
C Super . . . . .	45 @ 47	43 @ 45	42 @ 45	44 @ 47
Fine Combing . . . . .	63 @ 66	62 @ 65	62 @ 65	58 @ 60
Combing . . . . .	53 @ 56	52 @ 55	52 @ 55	53 @ 55
California, Extra . . . . .	68 @ 72	68 @ 70	68 @ 70	63 @ 65

## PULLED WOOL.

Business for the quarter has been exceedingly unsatisfactory and devoid of interest. The continued popularity of worsted fabrics has forced wools to the rear, and pulled wools, which enter largely into this latter class of goods, have suffered in consequence. An exception may be noted in favor of clear, white A and B supers, but these wools are of limited production, as even the standard pullings from butchers' pelts are more or less discolored. There has been a gradual weakening in the values of medium and low wools, and prices at the close of the quarter show a decline of fully 10 per cent from August quotations.

Extras and fine A's have maintained their usual strong position, but the output of these grades is small, and with no possible substitutes, the demand for them is always in excess of the supply. The finer grades of combings, from December skins, have sold readily, but the lower grades have dragged and are accumulating. The pullers have had a discouraging season for, in spite of declining wool values, sheepskins, owing to the demand for leather, have ruled high.

W. A. BLANCHARD.

## FOREIGN WOOLS.

The market for foreign wools during the last quarter of the year was somewhat irregular. It had become apparent to every one that the supplies of fine Australian wools here were in excess of the demand, and in consequence buyers were indifferent and sellers became more anxious. Some relief was experienced by fair sized shipments of Merino wools to Europe, and in December several holders reduced their supplies by making important concessions in price. The wools probably netted a loss, but the market was relieved.

On crossbred wools there was a fair demand, the finer counts receiving the larger share of attention, though wools of three-eighths and quarter blood grades were in moderate demand. The lower qualities, however, were somewhat neglected. This condition of affairs had a restraining influence on importers, and with a very quiet market on domestic fleece wools there was less speculative feeling, and the orders to Australia and South America were of much less magnitude than those of a year ago.

On carpet wools the finest and best worsted wools continued in good request at very little change in prices, owing to their scarcity and the difficulty of obtaining similar stock abroad. Ordinary spinning wools were not in active request, and as the supply was large and there was practically no outlet among clothing manufacturers, holders became uneasy, but the efforts of sellers did not receive much encouragement from the consumer.

The situation on all classes of carpet wools abroad is very firm, the disturbed condition of the Russian Provinces making negotiation and shipment of these wools extremely difficult and dangerous. The relatively high range of values in Europe enables English manufacturers to take such wools as Thibet at better prices than Americans can afford to pay for such wool.

MAUGER & AVERY.

Boston, January 1, 1906.

## FOREIGN WOOLS. (MAUGER &amp; AVERY.)

	1905.			1904.
	October.	November.	December.	December.
<b>Australian Combing:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	42 @ 44	42 @ 43	41 @ 43	43 @ 45
Good . . . . .	40 @ 41	40 @ 41	39 @ 40	41 @ 43
Average . . . . .	37 @ 38	37 @ 38	36 @ 38	39 @ 41
<b>Australian Clothing:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	41 @ 43	41 @ 43	40 @ 43	43 @ 44
Good . . . . .	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	38 @ 40	41 @ 42
Average . . . . .	37 @ 38	36 @ 38	36 @ 37	39 @ 40
<b>Sydney and Queensland:</b>				
Good Clothing . . . . .	38 @ 40	37 @ 40	37 @ 40	42 @ 43
Good Combing . . . . .	38 @ 40	36 @ 38	36 @ 37	41 @ 43
<b>Australian Crossbred:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	43 @ 45	43 @ 46	44 @ 46	39 @ 41
Average . . . . .	37 @ 40	37 @ 40	37 @ 40	35 @ 37
<b>Australian Lambs:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	41 @ 43	41 @ 43	42 @ 45	41 @ 43
Good . . . . .	38 @ 41	38 @ 40	38 @ 41	39 @ 41
Good Defective . . . . .	30 @ 33	30 @ 33	30 @ 33	31 @ 33
<b>Cape of Good Hope:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	34 @ 36	35 @ 36	35 @ 37	34 @ 36
Average . . . . .	31 @ 33	31 @ 33	31 @ 33	31 @ 33
<b>Montevideo:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	35 @ 37	35 @ 37	35 @ 37	34 @ 36
Average . . . . .	32 @ 34	32 @ 34	32 @ 34	30 @ 33
Crossbred, Choice . . . . .	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	36 @ 39	34 @ 36
<b>English Wools:</b>				
Sussex Fleece . . . . .	41 @ 43	41 @ 43	41 @ 43	39 @ 40
Shropshire Hogs . . . . .	40 @ 42	40 @ 42	40 @ 42	39 @ 40
Yorkshire Hogs . . . . .	36 @ 39	36 @ 39	36 @ 39	36 @ 38
Irish Selected Fleece . . . . .	40 @ 42	40 @ 42	40 @ 42	37 @ 39
<b>Carpet Wools:</b>				
Scotch Highland, White . . . . .	23 @ 24	23 @ 24	23 @ 24	23 @ 25
East India, 1st White Joria . . . . .	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	35 @ 36
East India, White Kandahar . . . . .	26 @ 28	26 @ 28	26 @ 28	28 @ 30
Donskoi, Washed, White . . . . .	30 @ 31	30 @ 31	30 @ 31	28 @ 30
Aleppo, White . . . . .	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	22 @ 24
China Ball, White . . . . .	23 @ 24	23 @ 24	23 @ 24	23 @ 24
“ “ No. 1, Open . . . . .	20 @ 21	20 @ 21	20 @ 21	20 @ 21
“ “ No. 2, Open . . . . .	13 @ 14	13 @ 14	13 @ 14	14 @ 16



# BULLETIN

OF THE

## National Association of Wool Manufacturers.

A QUARTERLY MAGAZINE

DEVOTED TO THE INTERESTS OF THE NATIONAL WOOL INDUSTRY.

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VOL. XXXVI.]

BOSTON, JUNE, 1906.

[No. II.]

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### BENJAMIN PHIPPS — A SKETCH.

ON May 1, when the sudden and unexpected death of Mr. Benjamin Phipps, senior member of the widely known firm of Parker, Wilder & Co. was announced, the business community and his many warm personal friends in Boston were deeply shocked and genuinely grieved. He was the oldest man actively engaged in the wholesale dry goods trade in this city, where he spent the whole of his long and honorable business life. He was the Nestor of the trade, and his passing severed almost the last link with the days of small things — before the great development of the last forty or fifty years.

Mr. Phipps had taken a cold a week previous, but persevered in his decision not to be absent from his office. As late as the previous Saturday he was at his desk, laughingly referring to his condition; but when he closed it at the noon hour it was for the last time, the active connection with the firm with which he had been associated for more than half a century coming to an end three days later. Some weeks previous Mr. Phipps had undergone a severe surgical operation from which he had recovered rapidly. His physical condition at that time was excellent and he prided himself that an octogenarian could come through the ordeal in so gratifying a way. But from this heavy cold the insidious disease,

pneumonia, developed Sunday morning, and in two days he was gone.

All his life he had rarely been ill and during his long business career illness did not keep him from his post of duty as much as a month. For some time he had been considering retirement, thinking he had earned some measure of leisure, and yet fearing that idleness might be worse than continued application for one who had been so active as he. That decision was spared him, for he died, as was fitting and as he deserved, in the harness in full possession of his powers and with the love and respect of all his associates.

He was born in Charlestown, Mass., on February 12, 1824. His father was Benjamin Phipps, Sr., a carriage trimmer and harness maker associated with the Frothinghams, Charlestown's celebrated builders of chaises and carriages of that day. His mother was Abby Kimball, of Newburyport, Mass. He was educated in the Bunker Hill School of his home town; what that education was and the extent of it we shall see later.

At the early age of fifteen years he made application for a position with the firm of Parker, Blanchard & Wilder, of Boston. There was one vacancy, for which there were two applicants. It was before the time when porters were employed about such establishments, and the younger employees were expected to assist in some of the heavy, hard work. The subject of this sketch was then but a stripling, less muscular and more slender than his rival, and the members of the firm, after inspecting the applicants, decided in favor of the other boy. The builders rejected the stone which afterwards became the head of the corner. It was at this juncture that the following letter of recommendation, written by the school-teacher of the lad, was presented to the firm by the boy's father:

BOSTON, January 30, 1839.

MR. WILDER,

DEAR SIR: This is written to introduce to you Mr. Benjamin Phipps of Charlestown, the father of the boy of whom I mentioned yesterday. Allow me again to say that the boy has been under my tuition for five

years last past. He is thoroughly acquainted with arithmetic and algebra, as far as the system has been developed by Emerson and Bailey, has been through Hitchcock's double entry bookkeeping, writes an elegant hand, and is in every respect a good English grammar scholar. I have ever found him amiable and kind in his deportment; possessing a high sense of truth and honor. He will honor any station he may be called to fill.

With sentiments of respect,

I have the honor to be your obedient servant,

WM. D. SWAN.

MARSHALL P. WILDER, ESQ.

Had the writer of the above been endowed with the gift of prophecy he could not have predicted more accurately the career of his youthful pupil. The teacher had been impressed with the characteristics which, apparent in the boy, developed in large measure in the man. He proved to be amiable and kind and he did honor every station he was called to fill. How well he fulfilled the prediction of his teacher may be realized by these two facts: that twenty-nine years after the letter was penned he was admitted to membership in the firm and nineteen years later still he was chosen a director in the old Hamilton National Bank of Boston, as the successor of the very man to whom the communication was addressed.

The letter had the desired effect, for later in the day Mr. Blanchard of the firm appeared in Charlestown and announced that both boys would be taken on the force and that Benjamin would be given a trial. The next morning before daylight he went to the home of Mr. Parker on Tremont Place to get the keys for the store, whither he repaired only to find no materials in sight with which to make the ordered fire. Imagine the consternation and distress of the youth under such conditions! Young as he was he proved himself resourceful, and by the aid of the teamster who carried the firm's goods from the Peterborough mill to the city, he discovered where the fuel was kept and the room was warm for the partners and the employees when they arrived.

It was with that firm of Parker, Blanchard & Wilder (of which Mr. Marshall P. Wilder became a member in 1837),

later Parker, Wilder & Parker, and still later Parker, Wilder & Co., and in that menial service that Mr. Phipps began the connection which continued until his death. He remained with that one firm in various capacities, beginning as office boy and ending as senior partner, for more than sixty-seven years, a length of service remarkable and exceptional in these restless, changeful days. The firm was one of the early commission houses of Boston and was one of the first, if not the first, to sell cotton goods on commission.

Mr. Phipps was soon promoted to a clerical position where his knowledge of bookkeeping and his excellent penmanship enabled him to keep a model set of books. By faithful, efficient service he commended himself to his employers to such a degree that, as a just recognition of them, he was admitted to the firm May 31, 1868, twenty-nine years after his first service as office boy. The partners then were: Marshall P. Wilder, Samuel B. Rindge, Ezra Farnsworth, John Byers, William H. Wilder, and Benjamin Phipps. All these he outlived, and at his death he was at the head of the firm, which in 1839 did but an infinitesimal part of the business it now has to its credit yearly. It has kept steady pace with modern developments, expanding its interests and its accounts until it has become the representative of and selling agent for some fourteen mills, in not a few of which the firm is largely interested financially. In the development of this extensive business Mr. Phipps performed his full share, his duties being largely confined to the supervision of the accounts and financial arrangements.

On the fourth day of January, 1849, ten years after he secured his first position, Mr. Phipps and Anne M. Bowen, daughter of Abel Bowen, of Boston, were married and settled in Chelsea, whither Mr. Phipps had removed in 1845. The father of Mrs. Phipps was for nearly forty years a citizen of this city who, as printer and publisher and one of the early engravers on wood and later on copper, preserved for us valued pictures of the past. To him we owe the preservation of the historic buildings, churches, and monuments of Boston. He originated the scheme of publishing Snow's

"History of Boston," and prepared illustrations for it; he published the "Boston News Letter and City Record" in 1825-6, and the "Picture of Boston," and was identified with "The American Magazine." He was the real founder of the art of wood engraving here as much by the stimulus he gave the subject as by his own productions.

Three years after his marriage, at the age of twenty-eight, Mr. Phipps bought his first home, where his children were born and reared, and there he remained as long as Chelsea continued to be his residence. To this home he was strongly attached, even after his removal from Chelsea, always refusing, in obedience to sentiment, to sell it and retaining his ownership as long as he lived.

In the affairs of his town he was keenly and unfailingly interested and he did his part to make conditions better. In 1877 he was a member of the Common Council, while the following year he served as Alderman. In 1868 the Public Library was established by city ordinance and was opened to the public on January 1, 1870. Mr. Phipps was not one of the original trustees, but in 1869 he succeeded Dr. Churchill, who had died, and the next year he was elected for the full term, a position he continued to fill with great acceptability until 1894, two years after he had removed from the city. He was chairman of the book committee and was deeply interested in the library's success. The Chelsea Savings Bank was organized in 1854. In 1855 he was chosen a trustee and in 1879 became its vice-president, so that at his death he was the oldest trustee both in point of age and service. He early identified himself with the First Unitarian Church of Chelsea, for many years being its treasurer and meeting obligations out of his own private funds—a fact unknown to the congregation until his successor was elected. Even after taking up his residence elsewhere the church continued to receive assistance from him.

His standing in the city is shown by his declination of an assured election to the mayor's chair. When he was being urged by party friends to be their candidate for that office, the chairman of the opposition party's committee called to



assure him that, if he were to be the candidate, there would be no opponent and he would be unanimously chosen. Though gratified by such evidence of the esteem of his townspeople, the honor was declined because he felt his business would not permit him to give such attention to the duties of the office as their importance demanded.

In later years, owing to the death of old friends in Chelsea and the great changes in the character of the place, making it less desirable as a residential town, he severed the ties of a lifetime, and in 1892 established himself in a fine home in the Aberdeen district of Brighton, where fourteen happy years were spent in his new surroundings. He connected himself with the First Parish Church in Brookline, and also held a pew in the First Parish Church of Brighton.

In business the connections of Mr. Phipps were many and important. In January, 1887, he was elected a director in the old Hamilton National Bank. When, with eight other banks, it was merged in the Shawmut National, Mr. Phipps was one of the organizers of the National Hamilton Bank and became one of its directors in December, 1898, and its vice-president in January, 1902. When this institution in turn was absorbed by the Fourth National Bank, Mr. Phipps was chosen a director of the latter in January, 1904, continuing to serve until his death.

He was a director in the Mill Owners Mutual Fire Insurance Company, chartered June 19, 1873, when it was consolidated with the Arkwright Mutual Fire Insurance Company in July, 1891, and he was continued on the board of the new organization.

In 1897 and 1898 he served on the executive committee of the Home Market Club, and was one of its vice-presidents since 1899.

He was a director in the Belvidere Woolen Manufacturing Company, of Lowell, since 1891; treasurer and director of the Coheco Woolen Manufacturing Company, of East Rochester, N.H., almost since its organization in 1862; treasurer of the Gonic Manufacturing Company, of Gonic, N.H., since 1868, and also president; treasurer of the Stirling Mills, Lowell,

since 1879, and director since 1891; director of the Phoenix Factory, Peterborough, N.H., since 1879, and also its treasurer; president of the Monadnock Mills, Claremont, N.H., since 1883; director of the Naumkeag Steam Cotton Company, Salem, Mass., since 1894; director of the Yantic Woolen Company, Yantic, Conn., since 1890, and president since 1901, and for many years treasurer and director of the Union Manufacturing Company, Peterborough, N.H.

In 1884 Mr. Phipps was chosen treasurer of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, being reëlected continuously since that date, a period of service exceeding that of all his five predecessors combined and more than equal to half the life of the association. The value of these services, which covered crises in its history, is not generally known save by those acquainted with them. His death means a great loss to this organization, in whose welfare he was deeply interested, and to whose upbuilding and conservation he gave much thought and very considerable work. Two years ago, at the annual meeting, attention was called to his twenty years of service and a resolution, conveying the thanks and congratulations of the association for the able manner in which he had performed the duties of his office, was unanimously and deservedly passed.

The quality of these services was of the same kind rendered in all his positions of responsibility. He was fidelity itself. When once he accepted a position he remained faithful to the end. He was with the firm for sixty-seven years; he was associated in the management of the Chelsea Savings Bank for more than half a century; he continued with the library as trustee for more than two decades, and in this association he held the responsible position of treasurer for the same length of time. He completely justified the prediction of his boyhood teacher — he honored every position to which he was called, the proof of which is that his services merited the confidence ever placed in him.

Mr. Phipps was also a member of the Union Club, the Country Club, the Boston Art Club, the Bostonian Society, and the New England Cotton Manufacturers' Association.

Mr. Phipps was respected by his business associates for his sterling character and high sense of honor; and he will be held in loving remembrance for those qualities of tenderness, gentleness, and sweetness which were constantly in evidence. That he had the respect of his competitors is shown by the closing by many of their places of business during the hour of the funeral services.

A fine example of an upright man, one of integrity both in private and business life, has passed from the stage of activity in the going of Mr. Benjamin Phipps, who, beginning at the bottom of the ladder, climbed, by reason of his ability, faithfulness, and capacity, to the topmost round, rising from obscurity to deserved distinction in both the commercial and industrial life of his city and State. He has left behind him a precious memory, an inspiring example for a wide circle who have been bereft of both counsellor and friend.

Mr. Phipps is survived by his widow, with whom he lived for more than fifty-seven years of happy married life, one son, Mr. Horace J. Phipps, and three grandsons, sons of Mr. Walter B. Phipps, deceased.

At the services, held at the home Friday afternoon, May 4, at two o'clock, members of the Apollo Club, of which he was an associate member, sang "Integer Vitae," "Still, Still with Thee," and "The Long Day Closes."

The honorary pall-bearers were business associates and friends: Hon. Albert D. Bosson, Thomas S. Lockwood, S. Parker Bremer, Samuel Rindge, Major Charles A. Stott, Stephen C. Meader, Colonel Charles E. Stevens, Frederic S. Clark, Albion F. Swanton, Winslow Tracy Williams, Amory A. Lawrence, George D. Harvey, George H. Hood, Franklin A. Webster, William Whitman, Roland W. Toppan, William Farnsworth, and James E. Leach.

The remarks made by the Rev. Dr. William H. Lyon, pastor of the First Parish Church, Brookline, respecting Mr. Phipps, we feel were absolutely true, not one word being undeserved; and it is with great pleasure that we reproduce what he so well said, as follows:

## REMARKS OF DR. LYON.

“Death is always sad and parting is always hard; but there are few occasions of death in which we find more rays of sunshine than we find to-day, both outward and inward.

“Our friend had a long life, even in these days when the generation is fast lengthening. Eighty-two years of unbroken service may be truly called a long life. But mere extent of time is of no value. We have to ask, ‘What was within it?’

“It was not only a long life, but in a physical way it was a strong life. Almost never, since he was a child, had our friend known what it was to be ill, until very recently, and then only under an operation. He referred to it humorously, but he felt as though it was a sort of disgrace that he should at last come to be subject to the ills which other people have. To live eighty-two years and almost never to have known what it was to be stretched out on a bed of illness or disability, that is the thing for which our friend deserved all congratulation.

“And it was a useful life — useful to the very end. He died as he wished to die, and as I suppose we all wish to die, in the harness. He had thought that his time had come to retire from business, but happily for him, it did not come. He never would have been content to be idle: not only his liking but his habit would have been against any happiness away from activity. It was a rare life then in this way, that almost to the very last day he stood at his post and was at the place where his work demanded him.

“Perhaps even more remarkable was it that it was a steadfast life. During all his business career he was in one concern. He went to it as a boy of fifteen, with a letter of recommendation from his schoolmaster, and he remained there sixty-seven years, until death took him to the highest school of all. A thing again to be congratulated upon; a lesson for young men in these restless days when many run about to find the place that is easiest, instead of settling down and making for themselves at last a place which is easy by long adaptation and success in it.



"It was an upright life. A long life but a stainless life. There rests upon him through all those years no spot of dishonor, of unfriendliness, treachery or fraud. It was one of those quiet lives that put to shame the headlines in the newspapers which would persuade us that there is nothing in the world but startling dishonor and betrayal of trust.

"It was a beloved life, beloved by all, both by his associates in business and by the poor that cried unto him for help. I have never found any one who was not drawn to him, who was not fond of him, and who the more he knew him did not like him the more.

"I might add that it was a religious life. He loved churches and helped many of them that were in trouble. He was a steadfast friend of the minister, always in his place when he could get there. He was remarkably fond of hymns, loving to repeat verse after verse that seemed to him fine, and often speaking, after the service, of hymns that had been sung or read.

"It was a religious life, not in professions, not in what was said, but in its natural liking and in its quiet doing.

"And it was a happy life. Our friend had a nervous temperament, apt to be anxious, liable to be in a hurry, to borrow trouble, and yet he had a happy life. It was happy here, above all, in its home. When I first knew the aged pair ten years ago, they seemed to me more like children than any people of their age had ever seemed to me, full of spirits, of humor, mutual good cheer and kindliness. They were fond of each other, fond of their son and of his wife, and around them all there was an atmosphere of tenderness, joy, and peace into which it was delightful to come.

"A long life and a strong life; a useful life and a steadfast life; an upright life and a beloved life; a religious life and a happy life. When we think of what has been in all these ways our grief is almost lost in admiration and in gratitude, and we are sure that the life so well begun we may follow without fear, though we have to follow it with grief and sense of loss."



## WELFARE WORK.

BY GERTRUDE BEEKS,

*Secretary of the Welfare Department of The National Civic Federation.*

THE purpose of The National Civic Federation, with which I am associated, is to organize the best brains of the nation in an educational movement toward the solution of some of the great problems related to social and industrial progress; to provide for the study and discussion of questions of national import; to aid thus in the crystallization of the most enlightened public opinion; and, when desirable, to promote legislation in accordance therewith.

The membership of the Federation is drawn from practical men of affairs, whose acknowledged leadership in thought and action makes them typical representatives of the various elements that voluntarily work together for the general good. Its National Executive Committee is constituted of three factors:

The general public, represented by the church, the bar, the press, statesmanship, and finance;

Employers, represented by large manufacturers and by the heads of great corporations, and employers' organizations;

Labor, represented by the principal officials of national and international organizations of wage-earners in every important industry. I shall show you portraits of six of the forty-eight members of the National Executive Committee.

Representing the public are such men as the Hon. Grover Cleveland, President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard, Mr. Andrew Carnegie, a capitalist, Bishop Henry C. Potter of the Protestant Episcopal Church, and Archbishop Ireland of the Roman Catholic Church;

Employers: Mr. August Belmont, our President, who succeeded Senator Hanna, a banker and the owner of the traction companies in New York City, Mr. Henry Phipps of the United States Steel Corporation, and Mr. Frederick D. Underwood, President of the Erie Railroad Company; and

Representing labor: Mr. Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, Mr. John Mitchell, President of the United Mine Workers of America, and Mr. Warren S. Stone, Grand Chief of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers.

There are useful organizations of farmers, manufacturers, wage-earners, bankers, merchants, lawyers, economists, and other distinct but interacting elements of society, which hold meetings for discussion of affairs peculiar to their own pursuits and callings. The Federation, in addition to its departments for the accomplishment of specific purposes, provides a forum where representatives of all these elements of society may meet to discuss national problems in which they have a common interest.

It is through these discussions, widely quoted in the press — the daily papers, religious, trade, and labor journals, that public opinion is crystallized.

The subjects covered at the present time by our organization are: Immigration, Industrial Conciliation, Industrial Economics, Public Ownership, Primary Election Reform, Welfare Work.

#### THE WELFARE DEPARTMENT.

The Welfare Department is a branch of The National Civic Federation devoted entirely to efforts to interest employers in giving especial consideration to improving the conditions under which employees in all industries work and live. Its membership is confined to employers and numbers more than two hundred.

#### WHAT IS WELFARE WORK?

Some of the subjects involved are:

**SANITARY WORK PLACES:** Systems for providing pure drinking water; for ventilation, including the cooling of superheated places, and devices for exhausting dust and removing gases; for lighting the work places; and for guarding machinery. Wash-rooms with hot and cold water, towels, and soap; shower baths for moulders and stationary firemen;

emergency hospitals: locker rooms: seats for women: laundries for men's overalls or women's uniforms; use of elevators for women; lunch rooms; rest rooms or trainmen's rest houses.

**RECREATION:** The social hall for dancing parties, concerts, theatricals, billiards, pool or bowling; the gymnasium, athletic field, roofgarden, vacations, and summer excursions for employees.

**EDUCATIONAL:** Classes for apprentices; in cooking, dressmaking, millinery; first aid to the injured; night classes for technical training; kindergartens and libraries.

**HOUSING:** Homes rented or sold to employees and boarding houses.

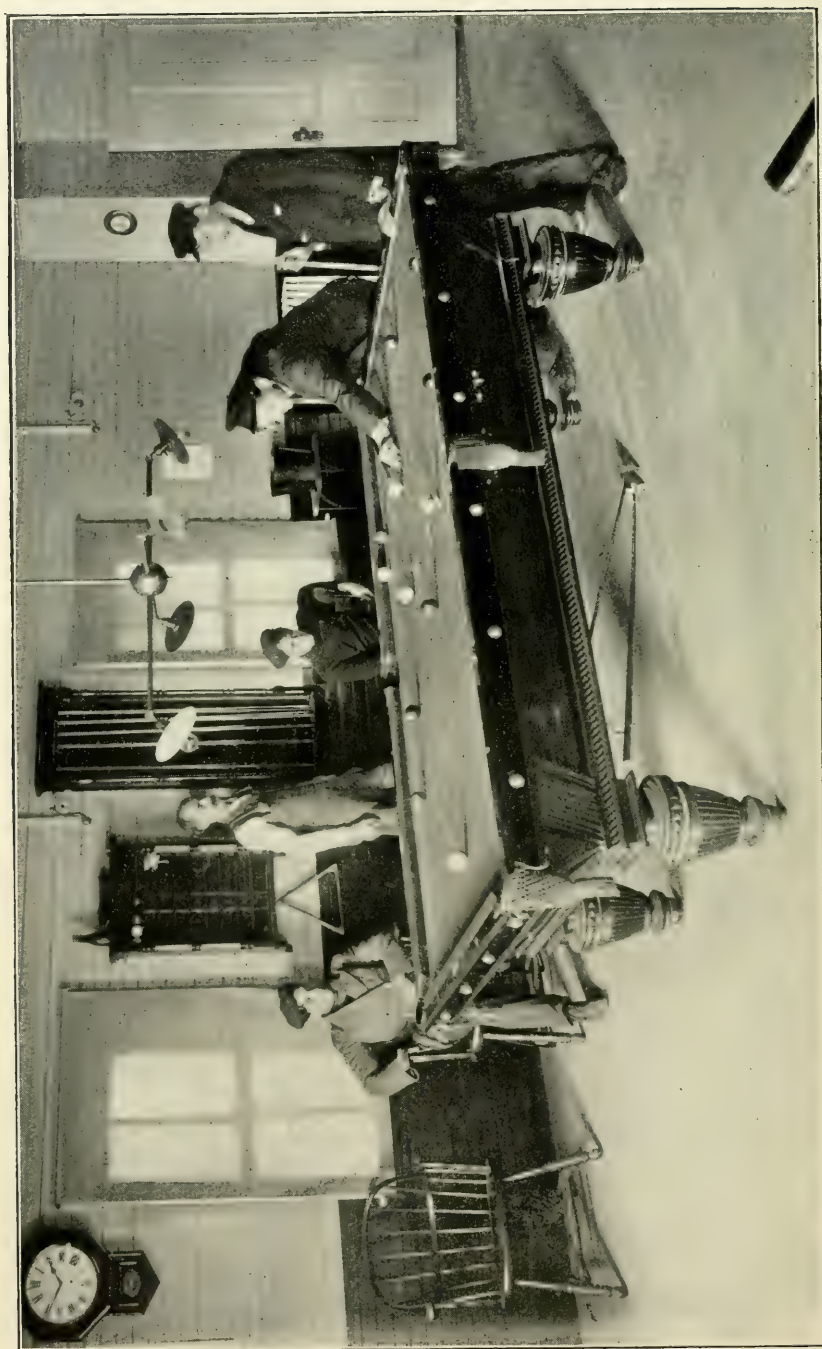
**PROVIDENT FUNDS:** Funds for insurance, pensions, savings, or lending money in times of stress.

One of the methods used to extend the practice of welfare work which the department has found of especial value is the holding of conferences of employers under its auspices in different sections of the country for the interchange of experiences. Successful welfare work, described by practical business men in connection with their industries, exerts an influence toward gaining the application of similar ideas by other employers.

The addresses of employers and experts are published in "The National Civic Federation Review," a monthly paper, and in separate pamphlets which are widely distributed. Thus the first useful literature on the subject has been and is being made through our department.

A bureau of exchange is maintained at the headquarters, where literature, plans, and photographs relating to welfare work may be obtained by employers who desire to profit by the experience of others. The department also undertakes to supply, on request, experts to examine industrial establishments, and make suitable recommendations for the introduction of welfare work.

It is with pleasure that I have learned from your President, Mr. Whitman, that you are all so prosperous because,



CORONET WORSTED COMPANY — BILLIARD ROOM IN A CASINO.

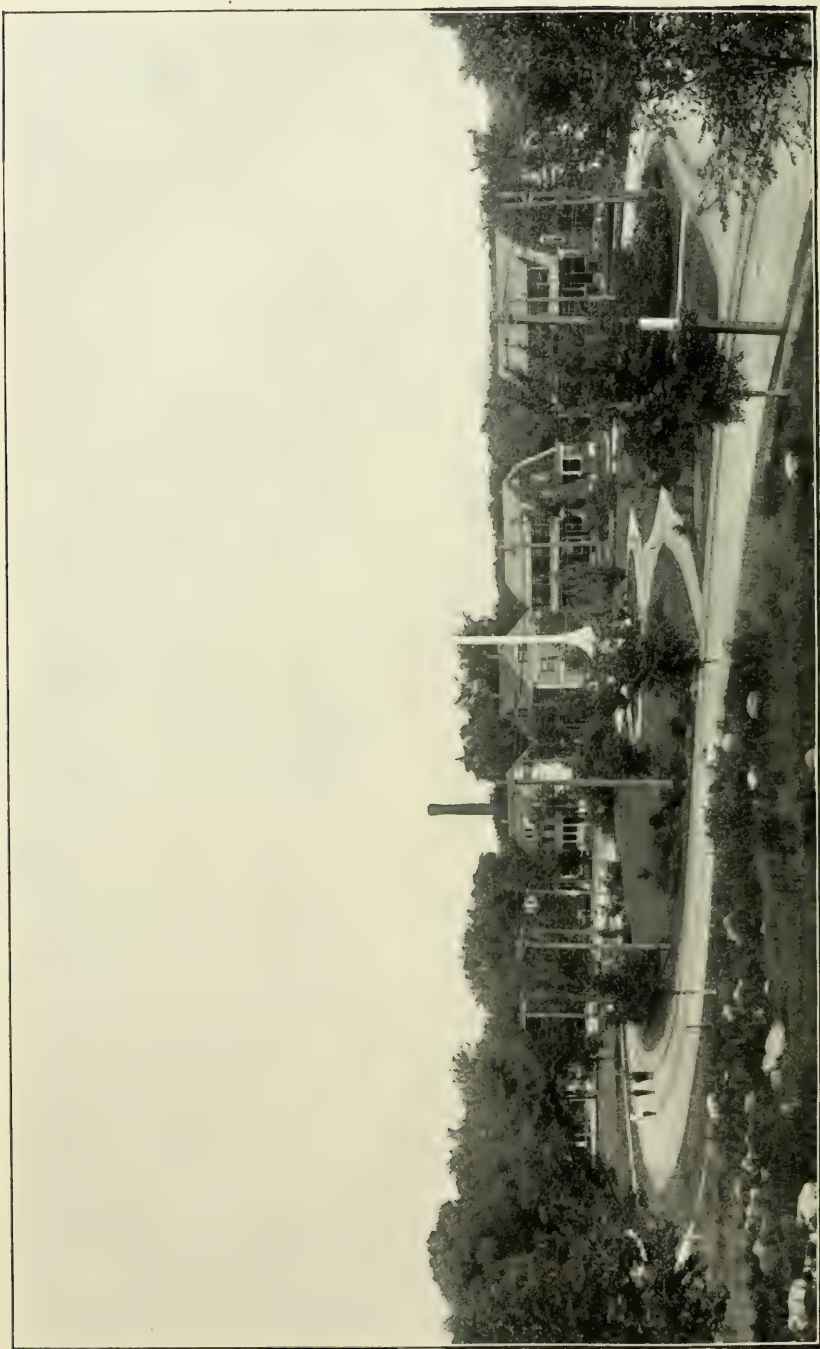


if you are not already practising welfare work, after you have seen the views which will be exhibited, there will be no excuse if you do not undertake it. I have learned many facts to-night from those about me. I hear that your President is about to build a fine club-house for the benefit of his employees; that Mr. Maxwell, on my right, is erecting a new mill to replace an old one and consequently will install good sanitary arrangements; as the result of an inquiry, one of your officials, Mr. Clark, tells me that the employees are not required to contribute to the pension fund which has been instituted by his company. Employees never object to a pension fund when they do not have to contribute toward it. Mr. Greene has not committed himself with reference to the village improvements at Peace Dale.

Four members of our Welfare Department, whose portraits were shown on the screen, represent welfare work in as many different industries. Mr. H. H. Vreeland, our Chairman and President of the New York City Railway Company, represents welfare work for fifteen thousand street railway men. He began life as a brakeman, and when a worker determined that if he ever became an employer he would meet the needs of the men which he had personally experienced. He established a large club-house containing an auditorium, a pool-room, library, physician's office, cigar stand and other facilities. At each terminal there is at least one pool table in the rest room, a lunch room, shower baths and toilet-rooms.

Mr. Nathan Straus, of R. H. Macy & Co., represents welfare work for over four thousand employees in a mercantile house. Before he began welfare work one of the young women employed in their store actually starved to death. This so deeply affected Mr. Straus that he determined such a catastrophe never should occur again. Under his relief system every employee is required to keep at home a postal card bearing the company's address, which must be mailed immediately if the employee is detained by illness. The company then sends one of its physicians or a nurse to see the employee. It is now impossible for one to be ill in a room-





LABORERS' HOMES, NORTH BILLERICA, MASS.

ing house without attention. Lunch rooms for the men and women in the store care for two thousand employees daily. That no one may go hungry free tickets are issued upon application to those whose funds are depleted.

Mr. George Westinghouse represents welfare work for over twenty-five thousand employees in manufacturing concerns. He voluntarily reduced the working hours to nine, and has given especial attention to the payment of a fair wage, to the introduction of the most modern sanitary conveniences, to technical education for apprentices, recreation, homes, and industrial insurance.

Mr. Francis L. Robbins, President of the Pittsburg Coal Company, represents welfare work for more than fifty thousand miners. In addition to that he makes periodical trade agreements with Mr. John Mitchell, of the United Mine Workers of America, who is a member of the National Executive Committee of the Civic Federation. Mr. Robbins has established provident funds for the purpose of caring for the men and their families in case of injury, illness or death. He also has a system for helping them to save for a rainy day.

#### THE PRESSING NEEDS OF EMPLOYEES.

After giving consideration to the first essentials to the welfare of the employees, — steady work, an equitable wage, and reasonable hours, the employer's attention should be directed toward meeting the pressing necessities for their physical well-being in the work places.

#### *Light and Ventilation*

Dark workrooms are depressing, and they are also the cause of many accidents. In the erection of new mills, either of concrete or steel, employers are devoting much of the wall space to windows. It goes without saying that light and sunshine add greatly to the cheer, and, consequently, to the health of workers. In old mills the dark corners may be illuminated by proper systems of artificial light. This has been demonstrated by more than one employer who has taken

care to have the rays so diffused that the glare will not cause headaches or shadows which would interfere with the work.

Systems of ventilation which permit a complete change of air in the workrooms at least every fifteen minutes are installed in modern structures. Employers are beginning to realize the desirability of going to the expense of installing such systems in old buildings. In one notable case the cost of installation was six thousand dollars, but the reduction thereafter of the percentage of absences because of illness was so great that the employer was compensated for the outlay. He also found that while previously the employees were likely to become stupid the latter part of the afternoon, the new system maintained alertness during the entire day. It has also been found advantageous to install, even in the old cotton mills, exhaust systems for the removal of the lint resultant from the first processes of manufacture. Where it is necessary to humidify the air in the textile industry, employers have found that the cold water spray provides an atmospheric condition much more comfortable for the operatives than the steam spray during the summer season, and that heat is not essential to the successful manufacture of cotton goods. In the foundry, where the pipes which are used in the winter for heating serve to bring in the cool air in the summer, great comfort is afforded the moulders.

In a rolling mill galvanized iron pipes carry the fresh air to the faces of the men occupied at the rolls. Previously, in very hot weather, the men were frequently overcome, and sometimes it was necessary to shut down the entire mill, the workmen thereby losing their wages and the company the output. Since the installation of the ventilating system not a single hour's time has been lost because of excessive heat.

In a watch factory fresh air, which has been forced through sheets of water, is conducted through pipes to the faces of the young women who sit in front of ovens baking the faces of the watches. The heat in these ovens reaches 2,000° F.

The stationary engineers and firemen, so universally essential, should not be forgotten. Where automatic stokers are impracticable, some thoughtful employers have carried

the pipes for forced ventilation above the furnace doors to prevent the firemen from baking their faces when "hauling the fires." Others have contributed greatly to their comfort by exhausting the foul, hot air and throwing fresh air into the furnace and boiler rooms. In many places this is seriously needed because the rooms are located in the sub-cellars or interiors of the structures.

### *Drinking Water.*

Some employers have the drinking water, which is brought from driven wells, subjected to a monthly chemical analysis to detect any change in its character. In other locations, the source of supply being satisfactory, the careful employer may secure pure drinking water by filtration, while some have gone so far as to install systems for distillation.

Drinking water easily accessible and at a healthful temperature is greatly appreciated by laborers. In some instances drinking fountains with cups are set at convenient places in the mills, while in others we find installed the new sanitary fountain, which permits the water to bubble into the mouth of the operative and reduces the danger of contracting tuberculosis.

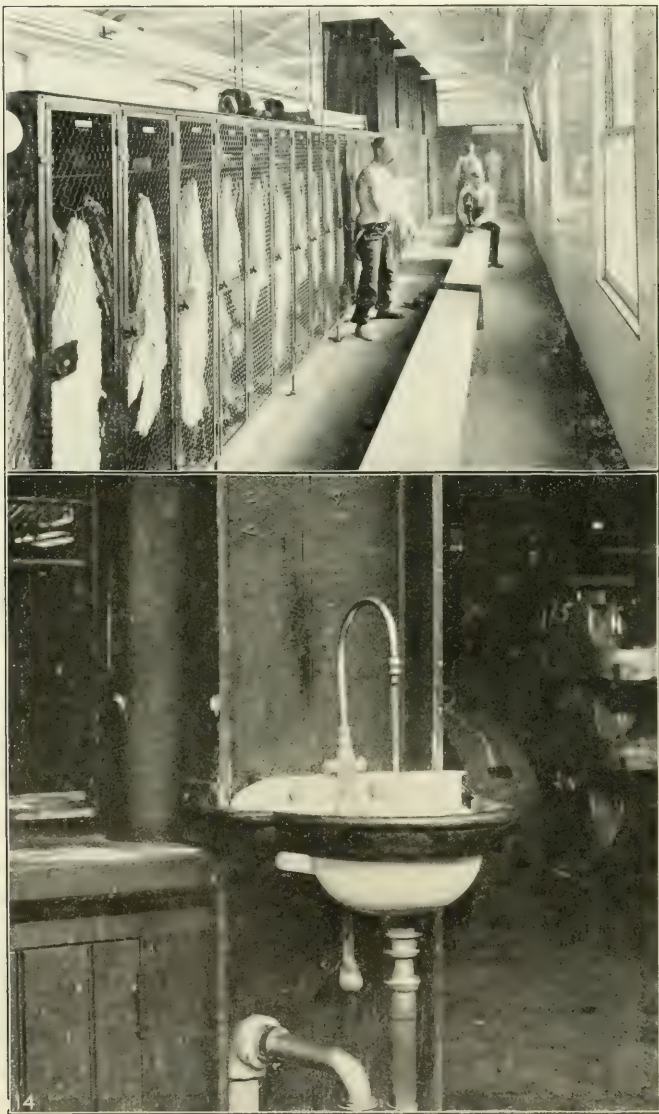
Different methods are adopted for cooling the water. Where there are driven wells, it is kept in constant circulation and delivered to the fountains at a temperature of about 55 degrees, or it may be cooled by having the feed pipes coiled about the ice in tanks provided for the purpose, thus preventing the direct contact of the water.

Perhaps no class of employees feels the need of drinking water more than the railroad engineers and firemen. Some have been so fortunate as to have stationary cans placed in their engines. The outside of these cans is made of tank steel, the inside of galvanized iron, and they are interlined with granulated cork.

### *Lockers and Dressing-rooms.*

Progressive employers are providing separate dressing-rooms with individual metal lockers for men and women em-





LOCKERS AND DRESSING-ROOMS.

ployees. These lockers ensure the ventilation of the clothing and prevent the accumulation of vermin. It is quite customary to require each employee to deposit from fifteen to twenty-five cents for the locker key, which sum is refunded when the key is returned upon leaving the employ of the company. A further advantage of the locker system is that it prevents the stealing of the effects of the employees. Beyond the prevention of stealing, there is no advantage in having metal lockers if they are placed in the dusty work-rooms, which I was amused to find had been done recently by two misguided but well intentioned employers.

Some employers have arranged to have steam-pipes underneath the lockers for the purpose of drying the clothing on stormy days. As employees frequently are obliged to walk long distances to their work, this consideration for their welfare prevents much illness.

#### *Wash-rooms.*

Individual bowls are now displacing the unsanitary troughs in which a number of workers were expected to "wash up" in the same water. Fine wash-rooms, with individual bowls, have been introduced in small as well as large factories. In old shops where there is no space for wash-rooms as additions to the factory rooms, it has been found possible to place batteries of individual bowls in the work rooms. An attendant turns on the water shortly before the closing time, and the employees are permitted to wash in relays before the whistle blows. This does not interfere with the discipline, nor does it ordinarily reduce the output. Where troughs are already installed, the up-to-date employer is equipping them with individual enameled iron basins, which are set in the troughs and may be emptied into them.

A system for "washing up" is much better than the old "sneaking off" process. The antiquated system of buckets would not have been so bad if there had been any place to keep them, but, as they were constantly stolen, friction was caused among employees. Another disadvantage in the bucket method was the wasting of time by the employees in going



WASH-ROOMS

back and forth to procure water during working hours. It has been thoroughly demonstrated that employees will use these facilities if an attendant is provided to keep the rooms in clean, sanitary condition and to supply towels. To ensure cleanliness it is necessary to have good janitor service, the cost of which should not be charged to the different departments. A foreman is expected to keep down the cost of production, and if janitor service is added to his accounts, he is likely to neglect his "housekeeping" duties. Furthermore, it is a hardship upon the housewife to be obliged to launder towels which the working members of the family require for factory use, and it necessitates an expense, which the average employee cannot afford, to furnish a sufficient supply of towels. Another element necessary to ensure the use of the wash-rooms is the provision of soap and hot water, for in unclean industries the workmen cannot remove the dirt with cold water and no soap. Even where there is no dirt connected with the work, when operatives have to clean their machines the grease from them adheres to the hands. Sometimes hot water is secured by having steam piped to the wash-basins. To prevent the stealing of soap, — for some employees do steal soap the same as the patrons of our best clubs and hotels, — cans for granulating it are frequently attached to the wash basins. Mirrors are not forgotten by considerate employers. They are appreciated as much by the men as by the women.

In all mills the stationary firemen should be given an opportunity to bathe and put on dry clothing before starting home; otherwise they are likely to contract colds. Moulders become very unclean and wet with perspiration while at work. Some foundrymen have provided individual wash-rooms, which enable the laborers to take sponge baths before putting on the clothing to go home. Others have shower-baths for moulders. These facilities are greatly appreciated if they are so accessible to the foundry that there will be no change in temperature to chill the men.

A beautiful factory swimming pool has been supplied by one thoughtful employer, who had to have a tank of water



for manufacturing and conceived the idea of making it serve two purposes.

*Seats for Women.*

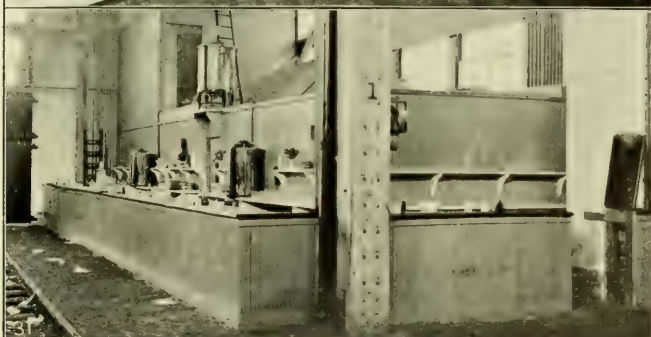
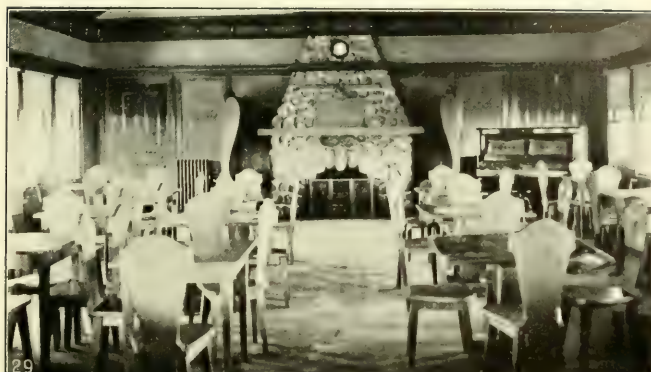
Even where women have been said to hold "walking jobs" the use of a little ingenuity has resulted in finding a way for them to be seated, the legs of the chairs being on rollers fitted into grooved rails. This enables one woman to operate seven machines. In industries where the processes of manufacture enable the operatives to sit only occasionally, and seats are provided, it is found that a moment's rest now and then helps to maintain strength and health. For employees seated constantly care must be taken to select proper seats which may be adjusted to their height, and to have back rests and foot rests, which prevent backaches and other ailments.

*Elevator Service.*

Employers are learning that women who laboriously climb the stairs to the upper floors of the factory are not in as good condition for work as when a way is found to conserve the energy by the use of elevators. Here again a little ingenuity enables the considerate employer to arrange for the use of the freight elevator in old mills. Very progressive is one woolen manufacturer, Mr. W. M. Wood, who is placing in his new mill at Lawrence an escalator designed to transport two thousand employees up five and six stories in five minutes.

*Lunch Rooms.*

In communities where employees have only half an hour at noon, or live in remote places, the factory lunch room is recognized as essential to their welfare. There are many different kinds of factory lunch places. Where it is impossible to secure space otherwise, employers have provided lunch counters in the corners of the workrooms. In such places frequently the laborers go for refreshment before noon. Wage-earners often leave home having had little or no breakfast and this morning lunch has been found very beneficial,



LUNCH-ROOMS.

as they become faint by ten o'clock. It has also been found that this privilege does not interfere with the discipline. Sometimes a morning luncheon is sent to the workers at their machines.

There is always the cry, "We have no space." In some instances basements have been converted into attractive lunch rooms. In mill villages employers have put up special lunch houses in the centers of the plants. Where it has been absolutely impossible to spare space for lunch rooms, city employers distribute bottles of hot coffee at noon, or portable lunch counters, readily attachable to gas-pipes, are sent to the workrooms. In extreme instances they have even placed the lunch rooms upon roofs.

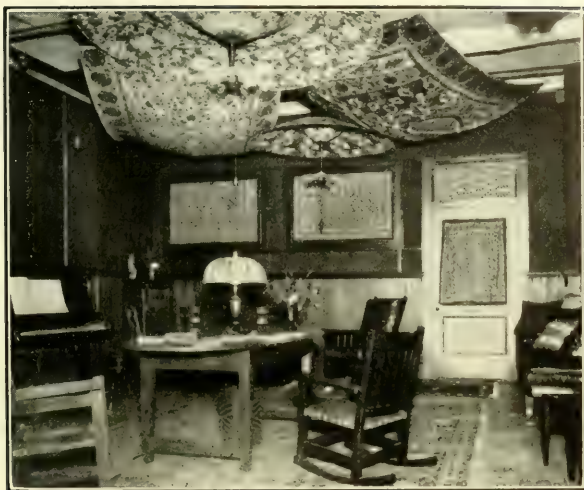
We sometimes hear it said that employees will not avail themselves of the opportunity to use a lunch room. Good, wholesome food, at prices within the reach of their wages, in an attractive, clean lunch room, will ensure its success.

The prices charged in employees' lunch rooms are nominal. For superintendents and foremen it is quite common to have a fifteen or twenty cent luncheon. Illustrations of prices for laborers are: a bowl of soup with bread and butter, five cents; meat and one vegetable with bread and butter, five cents; coffee, tea or milk, two cents; pie three cents, or a "ten-cent dinner." Men require large portions of meat and vegetables, whereas women prefer more dainty service. Pie must always be provided, and ice-cream should not be forgotten.

Where employees cannot be refreshed with an outing at noontime, it has been found advantageous to throw open the windows of the workrooms, and give them physical exercise before lunch. It is highly important to provide a smoking room adjacent to the men's lunch room, to secure a more liberal patronage.

### *Rest Rooms and Emergency Hospitals.*

Women who have been overcome are frequently able to return to work after relaxing and resting for an hour or receiving treatment in the emergency hospital. When there



REST ROOM.



INTERNATIONAL HARVESTER COMPANY, HOSPITAL ROOM.



is no rest room women will be found lying upon the floor in the toilet-room, or, when quite ill, stretched across two chairs. Where emergency hospitals have been installed, it has been found that instead of being patronized now and then, as had been anticipated, the employees have used them continually. For instance, before the installation of the hospital, when a man injured his hand he would be satisfied with putting a piece of waste upon it. Blood poisoning followed and he was laid up for a few days. With the advent of the hospital, every injury receives immediate attention and the men are not obliged to "lay off" for slight accidents. The emergency hospital has saved a large percentage of previously lost time. In addition, many employers have emergency boxes distributed throughout the work places and have classes for "First aid to the injured."

The trained nurse not only aids in the hospitals, but visits the families, where her influence improves the sanitary conditions of the homes and prevents the spread of contagious diseases.

Another kind of resting place is that for trainmen, who are away from home from thirty to fifty hours. It is a great comfort for these men, upon whose alertness public safety so largely depends, to have "bunk houses," in which good beds are furnished, at the terminals. An engineer or trainman seeks, upon leaving the engine, first a bath and then what he calls a "good square meal." The trainmen's rest houses are equipped with dormitories, baths, locker rooms, lunch rooms, game rooms, and libraries.

### *Recreation.*

Employees will dance, and many employers have met their obligation to provide proper recreation rooms to take the place of the saloon dance hall. In large establishments the plan of recreation frequently includes a club-house with an auditorium for theatricals and concerts, bowling and pool rooms, gymnasiums, and swimming pools. In city factories the club rooms are sometimes on the roofs of the buildings. In mill villages there are athletic fields adjacent to the club-houses.



HALL — OPERATIVES DANCING.

Playgrounds for the children of employees, and parks for the enjoyment of all, are sometimes provided.

Some employers have vacation savings funds to enable the employees to prepare for the annual "shut down" and consequent outing. Other progressive manufacturers have inaugurated the plan of paying the wages during the vacation period of employees who have been with the company for one year. While employees always need periodical vacations, in the unskilled trades where the wages are low, an enforced vacation without pay entails great hardship. Hunger is only two weeks behind the average wage-earner, and those who have their board to pay find that the shoe pinches pretty hard even at the end of the week.

#### *Educational Efforts.*

Some employers have classes for the training of new employees. They are given both theoretical and practical training, with pay, during a portion of the work-day. If the hours of labor are not too long, there are night classes for older employees.

Women are taught to help themselves in such ways as millinery, dressmaking, cooking, and all household affairs. The daughters of employees in certain mill villages who are instructed how to cook good, wholesome food in turn teach their mothers. In such communities kindergartens are initiated by employers. The instruction of the children becomes a direct contribution to good citizenship when the parents are largely immigrants. Sometimes an establishment is so large that its plan of education comes into coöperation with the municipality, or, in the case of a town which has been created for an industry, it assumes all the functions ordinarily performed through municipal agencies.

There are many forms of libraries for employees. In some places reading has been made possible for them by establishing factory branches of public libraries. In such a case the company provides a librarian to handle the detail work. Employees are supplied with free catalogues, in their several languages, that they may make leisurely selection of

books in their homes instead of taking time during working hours. When they have finished reading the books they are dropped in a box at the entrance to the factory, whence they are collected by the company's agent and returned to the library, the employees finding new books at their work benches at the closing hour.

In mining sections the traveling library is very satisfac-



EMPLOYEES' HOMES, POCASSET WORSTED COMPANY.

torily introduced. Some companies have special library buildings which have been equipped with books. They are loaned free of charge or at very nominal prices to ensure their care.

#### *Employees' Homes.*

In some instances employers have aided employees to save for the purpose of purchasing homes. Other employers have built houses to rent only. Some have adopted both meas-



ures. Employees of all classes have shown their willingness to take advantage of the opportunities offered by employers to better their living conditions. This applies to immigrants of various nationalities. Where employers have not recognized their moral obligation to ensure the American standard of living, naturally the foreigners will horde together in accordance with the only methods familiar to them. That they learn quickly to avail themselves of improvements has been amply demonstrated in textile, mining, and other communities.

Rents for unskilled laborers in several mill towns at from \$7.50 to \$10 a month, including bath and furnace, are within the wages of the tenants and yet give a return upon the investment. Very fine tenements are provided for skilled laborers at from \$12 to \$22 a month.

Cash prizes are offered for the best kept premises and for the best gardens. This has had a salutary effect upon the tenants. For example, when one man has received recognition in the form of a prize, his neighbor, who had not previously thought of improving his place, has been stimulated to do so, not only because of the desire for a prize, but because he felt pride in having his premises look as well as his neighbor's. A beginning of vegetable gardens and the planting of vines and flowers has led to the spending of money to paint the houses and improve the fences.

The distribution of prizes to the employees of the Talbot Mills, North Billerica, Mass., is made at Talbot Memorial Hall, the entertainment auditorium. Stereopticon views of the homes of those who have earned rewards are exhibited, and the occasion is made very interesting.

Some employers have boarding houses, or they may be called clubs, for women and men employees separately. A pool-room, game room, and cigar stand are provided for the men in such club-houses. Comfortable accommodations and wholesome food are furnished at reasonable rates. The custom obtains, in some of the women's boarding houses, of permitting the use of several sitting-rooms by the young women to entertain privately their men friends. This is an



TALBOT MILLS — ORDINARY TENEMENT, BEFORE.



AFTER.

excellent arrangement, and there is great need for more such boarding houses, especially in our great cities.

### *Provident Funds.*

Is it better to pension the aged employee or give him light work? Many employers have inaugurated plans to supply funds for employees in old age.

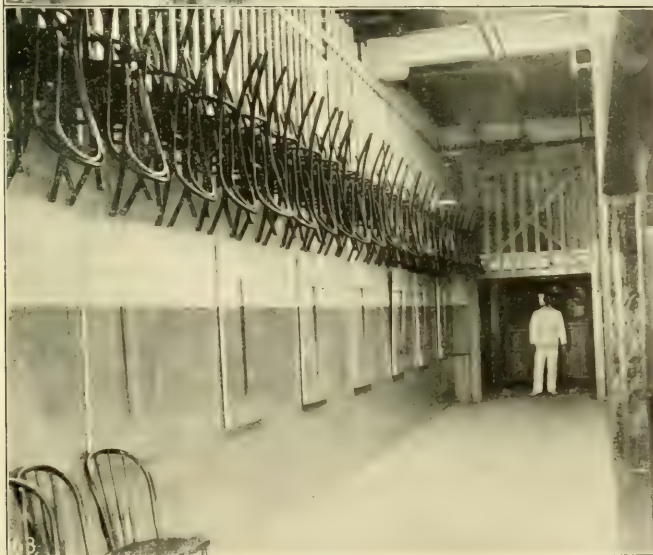
The advantage of relief systems for employees is the assurance of prompt assistance in case of illness or accident. The old plan of "passing around the hat" was apt to work hardship on the employees contributing and did not always reach those in distress. Some of the objections of laboring men to insurance plans have been met by progressive employers who have arranged to return at least a portion of the dues contributed by employees upon leaving the service of the company. When a man has been employed from fifteen to twenty years by one company and has contributed during that period to the relief fund, perhaps he has placed therein all of his savings, which he can ill afford to lose when his years of usefulness are near an end. Employers who have abandoned the obnoxious clause which binds the laborer belonging to the relief society to release the company from legal liability in case of a serious accident have met another objection to such plans of providing for the improvident.

There is a growing tendency among employers to encourage thrift by establishing savings funds. It is difficult for employees to patronize the public savings banks, which are not open during working hours, and furthermore, it does not appeal to a man to spend ten cents for car fare for the sake of reaching a bank where he may deposit a small sum.

Employers who have inaugurated systems for lending money to employees in times of stress have discovered a means of eliminating the "money shark" evil from their institutions.

### *How Welfare Work Operates.*

Now a word about failures. We sometimes hear of labor disturbances in a factory whose welfare work is elaborate and is paraded before the public for the purpose of advertising



LUNCH ROOM



the manufactured product. We do not see exploited voluntarily concerns which have quite as extensively but more successfully promoted welfare work. These public-spirited citizens, who are noted among their employees for fair dealing, have proven that that is the key-note to success in this constructive work which aids in the upbuilding of a community and reducing the number of inmates in our charitable institutions.

We are told that the employees should assume the management of welfare work.

Should they install sanitary conveniences? Of course not.

Would they know the need of a wash-room in a factory if they never had had one? No.

Should they manage lunch rooms? A few employers have attempted unsuccessfully to turn over the management of the lunch rooms to the employees, the result being that one self-sacrificing sub-official in each concern would find the burden entirely on his shoulders before working hours, during working hours, and after working hours. Employees cannot attend committee meetings during working hours, and they are unwilling to do so afterward, for they generally have outside engagements. Furthermore, the employees know nothing about the restaurant business. If they did, they probably would be engaged in it instead of their different trades. All experiments along this line of which we have heard have failed.

Coöperating committees, under the direction of an appointee of the company, aid materially in promoting the success of recreative efforts by gaining the interest and enthusiasm of all the employees. It has also been found wise, in forming committees for the direction of provident funds, to permit the employees to be represented upon them. The so-called "democratic idea," purely a fad, never has been successfully operated. Welfare work sometimes has been started enthusiastically, but has failed because there was no one person to keep its operation active and apace with daily needs.

I must be allowed to take exception to the suggestion that shop management must be changed to permit the introduction of welfare work. The usual methods in all business organizations of consultation with the heads of departments over contemplated improvements, fair dealing, and good discipline are essentials. For success there must be concentration of responsibility.

### *A Welfare Director Necessary.*

Many employers would introduce welfare work into their establishments were it not for the time and trouble needed for its organization. The employment of a welfare director removes this obstacle. Successful prosecution of welfare work requires concentration of responsibility. All of its branches must be under the supervision of one person, or efforts in different directions may conflict, or special and, perhaps, pressing needs may escape attention. Pressure of daily business routine usually relegates welfare work to the last consideration, but the average employer is interested in his men and is willing to improve their condition if only their needs are brought to his attention.

Each industrial establishment is a problem in itself. Beneficial features introduced in one may not be applicable to another in the same industry. On the other hand, some of the features of welfare work in widely different industries may be adapted to all.

It has been demonstrated that welfare work may be undertaken in small as well as large factories; that sanitary devices are applicable to both; that the first effort should be to meet the "pressing needs" of the employees; and that if the wage scale is on a fair and just basis, all of these improvements for the benefit of employees will be welcomed. Wage-earners — it seems to be forgotten sometimes — are human beings, and respond with appreciation, loyalty, and gratitude to all proper efforts in their behalf.

Through welfare work we find reestablished the personal touch between the employer and employees which was lost

when commercial enterprises grew to such vast proportions. While the employer cannot, under present conditions, meet individually each employee, he can periodically attend their functions. This active participation brings him into communication with the employees, and it is highly appreciated by them. Welfare work establishes a bond of sympathy, because these efforts to provide for the comfort of employees indicate to them that the employer is interested in their welfare. There is no better antidote for socialism to-day than welfare work.

## INDUSTRIAL INTERDEPENDENCE.

BY WILLIAM WHITMAN,

*President National Association of Wool Manufacturers.<sup>1</sup>*

As president of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, and personally, I take great pleasure in extending most cordial greetings to the honored guests of the evening, and in wishing them every success in the attainment of the objects of their visit to this country.

There are gathered here representative men who are actively engaged in the greatest of textile industries — the manufacture of cotton. They represent the two leading cotton manufacturing nations — Great Britain and the United States. I name these countries advisedly in the order of their rank. They are to-day the chief competitors for the cotton goods trade of the world.

What is this cotton industry in which the United States and Great Britain are the leading factors? What is its scope? What has been its growth, and what are the reasons for that growth?

It is in considering these questions that I have been brought to realize, during the course of my daily work, how dependent the growth of the cotton industry has been upon the corresponding development of other national industries. I have been led to study, in passing, the mutuality of relationship between our greater industries, and I wish to suggest to you certain results of that study. My subject for this evening, therefore, I have entitled, "Industrial Interdependence, with especial reference to Cotton Manufacture."

## THE IMPORTANCE OF COTTON MANUFACTURE.

It is difficult to measure the comparative value of the cotton manufacture. Opinions will differ, and I, perhaps, am not an impartial judge. It is unnecessary to give statistics, however, to show that cotton manufactures form the cheapest, most useful, most indispensable and most extensive part of

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<sup>1</sup>Delivered at the dinner given April 26, 1906, at the Hotel Brunswick, Boston, by the National (New England) Association of Cotton Manufacturers in honor of the Lancashire Private Cotton Commission.



the clothing of the great human family. Mingled and intermingled with almost all other fibers and in all forms, cotton is worn by mankind. Actually and figuratively, cotton lies nearer the human heart than any other substance for clothing which the art of man has produced. We walk in it by day, and we sleep in it by night. With the exception of food, it is difficult to conceive what could have a greater value.

But cotton befriends us in other forms than that of clothing. It utilizes and makes productive \$2,000,000,000 of capital; it gives healthy employment to many millions of work people. In the form of sails it propels our ships, in the form of tents it protects us from the elements, and to-day we read that it was through the power of a great explosive made from cotton that a large portion of the city of San Francisco was saved from ruin.

#### THE VERSATILITY OF COTTON.

The versatility of cotton, so to speak, is marvelous. Cotton is made into our heaviest canvas, and yet it forms the basis of our lightest and most delicate muslins. By a simple process it is transformed into artificial silk, which excels in brilliancy the product of the silk-worm. Cotton can be twisted into a rope heavy and strong enough for a ship's cable, and yet spun into almost invisible threads. There are authentic records to show that cotton has been spun as fine as number 2150, a thread so delicate that one pound of it would extend 1,026 miles. This seems fanciful, but as long ago as 1851 a muslin garment was made for Queen Victoria from cotton spun to number 460, a number so fine that a man could readily carry enough in his portmanteau to extend 5,000 miles. The spinning of cotton to such extreme fineness is not commercially practicable. It is a fact, however, that a considerable quantity of cotton is spun to-day as fine as number 250, four pounds of which would extend from this city to the nation's capital.

I mention these facts, not only to illustrate the varied uses of cotton and its value to mankind, but to enable you to see

clearly that such varied uses, on any large scale, have only been rendered possible by the development of coal and iron, and the other industrial products which inventive genius has so successfully applied to the mechanic arts. The history of this industry is, in a sense, the history of other allied industries.

#### IT HAD ITS ORIGIN IN ENGLAND.

The modern system of cotton manufacture had its origin in England, and it was a natural origin. The conception of the system was based on the discovery of the means of applying mechanical power to perform the work that in earlier days had been performed entirely by hand. Its birth may be said to be coincident with the invention of the steam-engine in England by James Watt in 1770. In so short a sketch I shall not attempt to convey to your minds the significance of this invention. That England appreciated the wonderful benefit bestowed by Watt upon the world is evidenced by an inscription written by Lord Brougham and engraved at the command of the King upon Watt's monument.

" Not to perpetuate a name  
 Which must endure while the peaceful arts flourish,  
 But to show  
 That mankind has learned to honor those  
 Who best deserve their gratitude,  
 The King,  
 His ministers, and many of the Nobles  
 And Commissioners of the realm,  
 Raised this monument to  
 James Watt,  
 Who, directing the force of an original Genius  
 Early exercised in Philosophic research,  
 To the improvement of  
 The steam-engine,  
 Enlarged the Resources of his Country,  
 Increased the power of Man,  
 and rose to an eminent place  
 Among the most illustrious followers of Science  
 And the real Benefactors of the world."

As the late Chauncey Smith said, "Probably no other mechanical conception ever entered so directly and profoundly

into the commerce of the world, ever so enlarged its volume and affected the values of commodities as the steam-engine in its various forms."

England also had coal and iron and a supply of cotton from her colonies. She possessed, therefore, all the necessary elements for the evolution of cotton manufacture. A glance at her industrial history from that time on strengthens the impression that the development of her cotton industry has been commensurate with and dependent upon the corresponding development of her other national industries — coal and iron mining, the manufacture of iron and steel, and their application to the mechanic arts.

#### ENGLAND'S INVENTIVE POWER.

In the invention, construction, and application of mechanical power England has always been fortunate. The inventive genius for transforming raw materials into machines for increasing the productive power of man is a heritage of her people, and it is this, coupled with her national resources, that has made England to-day supreme in cotton manufacture. Her inventions in cotton machinery measure this progress.

Shortly before Watt invented the steam-engine the spinning and weaving of cotton was a household industry. A necessary increase in the supply of weft or filling yarns was created by Hargraves' invention of the Spinning Jenny. A necessary supply of warp for yarns was created by Arkwright's invention of the Throstle Spinning Frame in 1769. The great demand for a general increase of yarn was met by Crompton's invention of the Mule about 1780, and the consequent demand for greater weaving capacity was met by Cartwright's invention of the Power Loom in 1785. Up to this time the supply of raw cotton, though limited, had been equal to the demand. Great Britain depended for her supplies almost wholly upon the West Indies, and had received none from her American colonies. Her entire importation in the year 1771 was less than 10,000 bales. As manufacture increased, and the uses of cotton became more varied, the supply was inadequate and in 1788 there was fear of a

cotton famine, which was averted, as we shall see, through the genius of an American inventor.

Increased trade created a need for cheaper and more efficient transportation. This need was filled by the invention of the locomotive by George Stephenson in 1825 and subsequent discoveries in metallurgy. I can but refer to the significance of the invention of the locomotive, and to discoveries in metallurgy by such men as Bessemer, Siemens and others, which have revolutionized the commerce and manufacture of all nations.

Of Stephenson it has been said that "No other Englishman has done so much for his fellow men, so much to change the social and economic conditions of society." Of metallurgy and its discoveries I repeat the statement of that eminent English economist, Mr. Richard Cobden: "Our wealth, commerce, and manufactures grow out of the skilled labor of men working in metals."

Stephenson may be said to have given both the locomotive and the railroad to the world; Bessemer and others to have brought the materials for their construction to their high perfection.

#### THE GROWTH OF THE UNITED STATES.

Thus far I have confined my remarks to England, but the same conditions underlying the evolution of the factory system there prevail in the United States. Our own country not only possesses all the advantages of England, but in addition has richer and more varied minerals, unparalleled water powers, and agricultural resources for an almost unlimited supply of cotton and the necessary food of life. Permit me to dwell for a moment upon the significance of our national progress during the past few decades.

First in importance is agriculture. In 1904 we raised more than twice as much corn as in 1870; more than one and one-half times as much wheat; more than three times as much oats; and more than four times as much barley. During the past thirty-five years our farm products have increased at a greater rate than our population. In the calendar year



1905 we not only furnished our own people with better and cheaper food than in 1870, but in addition we furnished foreign countries with farm products amounting in value to \$856,933,065.

How has this increase been possible? Here again is an example of the dependence of one great industry upon another. The development of our greatest industry, agriculture, has been largely due to labor-saving farming machinery and the facilities for transportation. Railroads were needed in order to open up our vast agricultural lands and to market their products; ships were needed to carry our surplus products to other countries.

An idea of the development in transportation may be obtained by a glance at the railroad system in this country. In 1870 there were only 52,922 miles of railroad in operation. Thirty-four years later 212,314 miles of railroad were being operated throughout the United States. This was nearly one-half the entire railroad mileage of the world. In 1904 we had in actual operation in the United States 48,658 locomotives. The work performed by these locomotives it is difficult to estimate. Thirty years ago, however, an engineer calculated that one locomotive performed the work of 1,200 horses. From this estimate it is safe to say that the locomotives in the United States to-day perform the work of more than 80,000,000 horses, more than four times the number now in this country.

#### WHAT THE IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRY DID.

What enabled the tremendous development in facilities for transportation to be made? We shall find the answer in the progress of the iron and steel industry during the past forty years. Men engaged in this industry have amassed colossal fortunes, which have caused discontent and envy among their fellows. In this connection, a few words may not be out of place. The needs of our people in the conduct of domestic and business life created so exceptional a demand for the products of the iron and steel industry that it has been abnormally profitable. Fortunes could not have been made,

however, if their possessors had not contributed to the common good and filled a common need. Those that have been amassed cannot, as many suppose, be stored in vaults away from the people. They must be used and they cannot be used to yield a stable profit without benefiting the people. In the physical world the stream flows from the mountain to the sea, but in obedience to a natural law, its waters return to the mountain. In like manner, in obedience to natural law in the industrial world, which may be termed economic law, the stream of wealth that flows from the people to any great industry will ultimately find its way back to the people.

As an illustration of this law, let us see how the waters of wealth that pour into the iron and steel industry return to the people. In 1903 the United States produced about fourteen and one-half million tons of steel. This was nearly three times the quantity produced in Great Britain and was more than 40 per cent of the entire production of the world. Since that time our production of steel in this country has increased to more than twenty million tons a year, and it is fair to estimate that it now exceeds more than one-half of the world's production. But the magnitude of our iron and steel industry is not the only measure of its value. That value depends upon the varied uses to which steel can be put and to the importance of those uses in our every day life. Our manufacturing, our transportation, and the utility of our agriculture depend upon iron and steel. Through iron and steel, and their attendant genius, coal, man is enabled to make use of almost the entire surface of the earth, moving over land by rail, across rivers by colossal bridges, and over seas in ships of steel. It would be impossible for me to catalogue the manifold uses of iron and steel. I merely suggest some extremes in their product to illustrate the scope of those uses.

#### EXTREMES OF THE PRODUCTS.

Within the past year, for turbine use in one of the Cunard liners, a solid ingot of steel weighing 120 tons was cast by the W. G. Armstrong Company, Ltd., at Manchester, Eng-

land. In this country several years ago the Bethlehem Steel Company produced enormous steel ingots used in the manufacture of armour plates for our war-ships. Each of these solid masses weighed 275,000 pounds or 137½ tons. The Bethlehem Company has also produced the largest crank shaft ever made. The ingot for this shaft weighed 120 tons, and the shaft when completed was 25 feet long, 3 feet 1 inch in diameter at one end, and 2½ feet in diameter at the other.

Thus are illustrated the massive uses of steel. Now, in contrast: I have iron wire drawn to one one-thousandth of an inch in diameter. It is so fine that it can be put through the eye of the smallest needle, and a pound of it would extend 72½ miles. This wire demonstrates how raw material can be enhanced in value by skilled labor. A pound avoirdupois of iron in this form is valued at \$1,814.40. A pound avoirdupois of our gold coin has a value of \$271.32. I have also a sample of pure steel which is nearly forty times more valuable than the iron wire. It is a delicate part of the watch known as the "pallet and fork" which I am told is sold to the watch repairer at the rate of \$71,000 a pound. There are about 16,000 of these tiny parts to the pound avoirdupois.

Intermediary between such massive and such delicate products of iron and steel, we find farming implements, cooking utensils, instruments of construction — all materials and articles of absolute necessity. It is in these forms that the wealth that flows into the iron and steel industry flows back to the people. It is these forms which are the contribution of the iron and steel industry to the common good.

#### STEEL DEPENDS UPON COAL.

Mr. Carnegie is reported to have said, "Steel is king," and the report adds that his wife replied to this remark, "And coal is queen." If this be true, then certainly coal is the power behind the throne. Permit me to revert again to the pervading thought of this sketch. Great as steel has become, it depends upon coal for that greatness. On coal, rests the

inherent value of iron and steel. On coal, and iron, and steel our transportation depends. On all three, the development and utility of our agriculture; and on them, perhaps, the cotton industry, and so on. Each enterprise has its place in the great industrial structure. Destroy or disable or cripple any one enterprise, and you weaken the whole industrial structure, each remaining enterprise having to bear the burden of the extra strain. Each enterprise has its particular function, but in the complex development of our great industrial system in modern times, it is, perhaps, difficult to point out which enterprises in this great structure are the most important. If a foundation must be named, however, that foundation is, in my opinion, coal, and what a magnificent foundation we have in the United States! In 1903 our mines furnished nearly three-eighths of the world's production.

#### AMERICAN INVENTORS OF COTTON MACHINERY.

But opinions differ, and there are many who proclaim another king, a king whose rule in the past few years has made our Southern States flourish and prosper — Cotton.

I have spoken of the cotton industry, its origin and evolution in England, and the names of great men whose inventions have caused that evolution. There is, however, an American whose name must not be forgotten. He was one of the great men of his time. His invention, as much as any other, stimulated the cotton industry throughout the world, and it was his invention that tended to prevent the threatened cotton famine about 1790, to which I have alluded. This man was Eli Whitney, the inventor of the cotton gin. It was this machine that has rendered possible the necessary increase in the supply of cotton.

I wish to say a word about the two other American inventions that have increased the productive capacity of our cotton machinery. I refer to the Rabbeth spindle patented May 4, 1880, and the Northrup automatic loom patented June 3, 1891. Both these inventions were perfected for our industry under great difficulties, at great risk and expense



and with unwearying patience, by George Draper & Sons and their successor, the Draper Company of Hopedale, Mass. It is said that every cotton mill in the United States and many in other countries pay tribute to the Drapers. The tribute our country pays, however, is but the measure of their contribution to the common good, and to our industry itself. This Association, in recognizing that contribution, has erected in Philadelphia a memorial of George Draper, and this Association honors his distinguished sons.

#### DEVELOPMENT OF OUR COTTON INDUSTRY.

The development of our cotton industry in this country has been very rapid. The United States in the year 1904-5 produced more than 75 per cent of all the cotton produced in the world. This supply has grown from about one million bales in 1831 to about thirteen and one-half million bales in 1904. In 1791 Alexander Hamilton stated in his report that there was but one cotton factory in operation in the United States, and that this factory had only 72 spindles. In 1905 there were in the Southern States alone 9,205,000 spindles, and there were in actual operation in cotton mills throughout the United States 24,073,000 spindles. To-day there are undoubtedly many more.

The great tribute of \$1,000,000 a day which Europe pays to our Southern States is a witness of the interdependence of grower and manufacturer. This interdependence is illustrated also by the visit of our English friends to this country.

The ratio of increase in the consumption of cotton, and the enlarging scope of its uses foreshadow the immensity of the world's future requirements. It is imperative that manufacturers seek sources for an enlarged supply, and stimulate production over a wide area. In this way the danger of a short supply — and I emphasize the danger of a shortage, for there is no substitute for cotton — may be minimized. In this way also violent fluctuations in the price of cotton may be avoided and greater stability established throughout the entire industry.

## ALL SHOULD WORK IN HARMONY.

The development of the South shows that the grower and manufacturer should work in harmony. It is common knowledge that to-day the South is more prosperous than ever, and that this prosperity is largely due to the development of her cotton industry. It is common knowledge also that the cotton industry throughout the North has thrived and prospered. The intimate relationship established between Northerner and Southerner allied in the cotton industry has added to the welfare of both, yet during the past twenty years many of our northern manufacturers have feared that the development of the South was a menace to northern interests. The North labored under the misapprehension that the development of the South would be at the expense of the North and that the wealth contributed to southern industries would not flow back to the North, according to the economic law which I have suggested. Northern business men saw at the outset the immediate flow of capital to the South, but it has taken time for them to realize its return.

## MISTAKEN OPPOSITION TO INVENTION.

Opposition to beneficial change and development is found in the history of all great industries. Since the introduction of machinery the wage-earner has fought and struggled against all devices substituting mechanical for manual labor, yet it is clear beyond the shadow of a doubt that they fought against that which has brought them higher wages, lower relative prices for their commodities, and many added comforts of life. The machine has returned good for evil to those who have opposed it.

In an enlightening pamphlet read last February before the Manchester Association of Engineers, Messrs. W. H. Cook and Joseph H. Stubbs show by a careful compilation of statistics that the material welfare of operatives in textile industries in England has improved steadily and in an ever increasing ratio from the year 1856 to the close of the year 1905. From my own observation and experience, I may say

that a corresponding improvement, or perhaps even a greater improvement, has taken place in this country. The wage-earner, therefore, should welcome any mechanical contrivance which saves manual labor. There should be a community of interests between wage-earners, inventors, and machine builders, and they should all work in harmony.

#### NO ROOM FOR A SELFISH POLICY.

No one great industry should attempt to thrive at the expense of another. No one branch of any great industry can justly demand that its interests or supposed interests shall be preferred at the loss or cost of another branch of that industry. No one locality or section of the country should attempt to profit at the loss or expense of another locality or section. There can be no economic gain in transferring benefits, if such exist, from one class to another class, of producing beneficiaries. The greater relative prosperity that may exist in one industry than in others can only be secured from the prosperity of those others. Excessive relative gains can only be temporary, existing only during a process of readjustment. Furthermore, such excessive relative gains are distributed ultimately among other industries, according to an economic law. The prosperity of one section or of one industry is, in a sense, the prosperity of all sections and of all industries. If we envy the profits of others and attempt to limit those profits in order to divert the flow of capital toward our own industries, we impair the wealth of the world and ultimately our own industries in their just proportion. Create a great economy in your own industry and you reap the benefit directly. Create or assist in creating a great economy in an allied industry, and you reap the benefit, but you reap it indirectly. Such, in my opinion, is the natural law in the industrial world, the economic law which causes in the end the distribution of the results of any particular prosperity among all classes.

## Obituary.

HENRY ERBEN.

MR. HENRY ERBEN, of Philadelphia, a director and large stockholder in the Erben-Harding Company, of that city, died April 16, at Santa Barbara, Cal., whither he had gone in search of health in February of this year. At first the liver trouble which had harassed him for some time seemed improved, but after reaching Santa Barbara he grew worse rapidly and passed away in the presence of his wife, two sons and a daughter.

Mr. Erben was born in Philadelphia December 16, 1845. His father was a woolen manufacturer, operating machinery in the Ringgold Mill at Twenty-second and Hamilton streets before and during the Civil War. About the close of the war he retired from manufacturing and became a special partner in the wool firm of Davis, Fiss & Banes. The son received his education at the Moravian School at Nazareth, Pa., and in 1867 entered the employ of the firm with which his father was associated. Three years later the firm, composed of George W. Fiss, C. H. Banes and Henry Erben, bought the Fairmount Worsted Mills from John and William Yewdall, the former of whom had established the business in 1860. In 1883 Mr. Erben became the head of the firm of Erben, Search & Co., who succeeded Fiss, Banes, Erben & Co., and built the Tacony Worsted Mills in 1884. In 1894 the firm became Erben, Harding & Co., Henry Erben managing the Fairmount Mills, Walter Erben managing the Tacony Mills and Charles H. Harding directing the buying, selling and financial departments. The business continued thus until July 1, 1901, when it was incorporated as The Erben-Harding Company. At that time Mr. Erben retired from active business, although he retained connection with the management by accepting a directorship in the new corporation in which he was interested as a stockholder. His health at that time was a matter of concern, and while it improved with relief from the responsibilities of active business, he never became entirely robust.

The funeral services were held April 24 in St. James Episcopal Church, Philadelphia, of which he was a member, and were



attended by many friends, including a large delegation from the employees of the company.

On the day of the funeral the directors of the company adopted the following appreciative minute of their departed associate :

In profound sorrow over the sudden decease of our late fellow-member, Henry Erben, the Board of Directors of the Erben-Harding Company record this minute of their appreciation of his life and services.

To most of us he has been a companion in business for thirty years or more; and we bear affectionate testimony to the qualities of his mind and character which contributed so much to the harmony of our relations during this long term of intimate business intercourse.

As a member of the firms which this company succeeded, he gave the most scrupulous integrity and signal fidelity to the management of the department of the business which was under his personal charge; and in these respects his life was a model to the employees under his care; and at all times he had a ready and helpful sympathy for every case of trouble and distress among them.

The Secretary is instructed to forward to the family of our lamented associate a copy of this minute.

#### JOSEPH HOLLINRAKE.

MR. JOSEPH HOLLINRAKE, a director of the Goodall Worsted Company, and superintendent and managing director of the Maine Alpaca Company, died April 15 at his home in Sanford, Me.

Mr. Hollinrake was a public-spirited and philanthropic man, who won an enviable place in the hearts of his fellow townspeople, — although his benefactions were not generally of a public character. He was a most efficient officer and his loss will be greatly felt in the establishments in which he was a director.

He was born in Bradford, England, 1854. When he was fourteen years old he commenced work for the old-time firm of Briggs & Henry Priestly, dress goods and lining manufacturers. The firm name at the death of Henry Priestly was changed to B. Priestly & Co. With this firm Mr. Hollinrake worked up through all the various departments, his faithfulness to business being recognized. About 1880, when the junior partner started on his own account under the name of Thomas Priestly & Co., taking one of the mills as his share at the dissolution of the partnership, Mr. Hollinrake went with the new firm and became

manager and designer. In a few years this business was developed so as to have a capacity of 900 looms on dress goods and linings.

In 1889, after serving continuously with the Priestlys for twenty years in all the various branches of manufacture, Mr. Hollinrake came to this country. After serving short terms with the Atlantic Mills, Providence, R.I., the Pacific Mills, and Arlington Mills, Lawrence, Mass., he went to the Goodall Worsted Company in 1890 and took charge of the weaving department. When the Maine Alpaca Company was organized in 1899 Mr. Hollinrake was made superintendent and managing director. February 2, 1901, he was made a director of the Goodall Worsted Company, a position he held at the time of his death. He was also interested in founding the Minerva Mills, which form a part of the Alpaca Company, and was director in the Sanford Realty Company, which built the tenement houses in the vicinity of this mill. He was also a director in the Springvale Aqueduct Company, the Springvale National Bank, and was connected with other enterprises.

Mr. Hollinrake was a sound Republican and for several years he was on the Republican town committee, serving as chairman for one year. His influence in politics was great, as his motives were disinterested and devoted to the best interests of the town. Every enterprise which tended to the prosperity of the town received his most hearty support.

## Editorial and Industrial Miscellany.

### SERICULTURE AND THE SILK INDUSTRY IN ITALY.

EARLY in January, 1904, a circular letter was addressed to consular officers of the United States in Italy, China, and Japan, the three countries furnishing the raw silk to American manufacturers, instructing them to make investigations into sericulture as conducted in those countries and report the results of such investigations for publication in the Consular Reports. The points on which information was sought were indicated by interrogatories covering the industry submitted by the Silk Association of America. The following is a condensation and resumé of the many reports submitted by the various consuls and consular agents. It makes an interesting account of silk production; and it also makes it clear that sericulture cannot be successfully undertaken in the United States because of the extremely low rate of compensation received by the peasants for their work, and with which workers in this country would have to compete, if it were undertaken.

According to official statistics the Italian production of cocoons, including the quantity consumed at home, is about 121,253,000 pounds, all of which is collected during the months of June and July, for but one crop a year is raised in that country. Attempts have been made to produce a second crop; but, while it is possible, it is not profitable, the trees suffering from two strippings of their leaves and yielding much less the following year.

The raising of the silk-worm is undertaken by the peasant and his family, the male members gathering the leaves and the female members attending to the hatching of the eggs and the care and feeding of the worms. The raising of silk-worms requires about forty days. During the other parts of the year the men busy themselves with the cultivation of other crops and the women and girls are mostly occupied in the silk-reeling industry or in the cotton and woollen industries, which in northern Italy are important and give employment to a large number of men and women.

The culture of the silk-worm does not represent a larger income to the peasant than he could earn in other occupations, but he is

constrained to engage in it for various reasons. The owner of the land which the peasant cultivates for grain, maize, vines, and hay is also the owner of the house where the man and his family live, and it is natural that he insists that his tenants utilize the leaves of his mulberry trees by cultivating the silk-worm, and bring him return on them. Moreover, in that period of the year it is usual that the work in industrial establishments, especially in reeling and twisting establishments, ceases for the annual repairs of machines and for the necessary preparation for the annual purchase of cocoons. Working women, therefore, in such periods would not earn a living if they were not occupied in silk-worm cultivation.

MULBERRY TREE GROWING — THE GREATEST COCOON PRODUCING  
REGION IN ITALY.

In the Piedmont district the peasant usually plants his trees on the edges of his field so as to avoid shading his ground which is devoted to the production of grains and fruits. The white mulberry tree, in use in Piedmont, is of slow growth, becoming useful in fifteen years, but not reaching its full size until it is twenty-five and thirty years old. It lives to a great age.

The culture of the trees requires as much care as that of the silk-worm itself. The trees are not allowed to grow wild, special nurseries being kept by horticulturists for their cultivation. When the plant has grown to the size of a small shrub it is taken from the nursery and transplanted a little more than five yards apart in rows, the rows being distant one from another at least ten or twelve yards.

Before planting the shrub a hole is dug two yards square and about one yard deep. Stable manure, previously prepared, is then placed in the hole, and in the middle of the square the shrub is planted. The hole is then filled in with earth from which all stones have been picked, so that the roots do not meet with any obstacle in their growth.

During the first year the shrub is allowed to grow three branches. In the winter these are cut back, and in the following spring each branch of a year's growth which was cut will put forth new branches, which again in the succeeding winter are likewise cut, leaving three stems on every branch of two years' growth. The tree is pruned yearly on the same method. The fourth year after being transplanted the trees can be stripped of



leaves for feeding the worms. The trimming of the trees, according to the method above described, calls for practical experience, as it is an important factor in the welfare of the tree.

The ground surrounding the mulberry tree for a radius of three yards should be kept free from grass or other vegetable growth and roots which would draw from the nourishment of the tree.

The pruning is usually done late in the autumn and sometimes in the winter. Mulberry trees are propagated by grafting to some extent, but chiefly from seed. Where the winter cold is not intense the seed is sown at the end of summer as soon as the berries of the tree are ripe.

The trees require nitrogen, phosphorus, good tillage, rational pruning, and the greatest care in gathering the leaves. Seedling trees are preferred, and of the recent plantings the moretino kind, with untwisted leaves, has been chiefly chosen, presumably because of its larger product. The trees are open to a deadly attack from *Diaspis pentagona*, an insect which appeared in 1866, and still to be found in some places in Lombardy.

#### SECURING OF HEALTHY SEED.

The precautions used by sericulturists in recent years to produce healthy worms and cocoons in good quantity are principally the special cultivation and isolation of small quantities of worms well placed as to atmosphere and provided with nutrition of the best quality. The sericulturist carefully selects the necessary number of cocoons, properly apportioning them, male and female, which can be easily done, the female cocoons being plumper and rounder than the male. These, in about twenty or twenty-five days, are perforated at the end, the moths, which are about one-third the size of the worms, bore through and appear fully equipped with wings, but give no indication of a desire to fly. They mate, lay their eggs, and their mission having ended, die.

The worms in the chrysalis and the seed obtained are examined under the microscope to ascertain their immunity from the disease known as pebrine. The unhealthy seed is discarded, the healthy seed preserved in refrigerant rooms from July until the following April at a constant temperature independent of external variations, so that even though spring weather should come before the normal period the eggs of the worms remain unhatched until the proper time for cultivation, determined by the growth of the tender mulberry leaves, the women cutting the leaves

with scissors and placing the fragments on the little creatures when they begin their first eating.

When this period has arrived the eggs are taken from the refrigerant rooms and are placed in the stove; that is, in a room where the temperature is augmented by half a degree each day until it is brought to that degree which hatches the eggs. This room is especially guarded night and day by practical and experienced persons, whose care it is to never permit the temperature to be lowered from the points progressively reached. The consequence of such lowering would mean the death or at least the weakening of the future worms. As the worms are hatched they are distributed to the peasants, who then begin the cultivation.

Women sometimes place the eggs in light cloths and put them in their bosoms to hatch; others put them under bed pillows, but a frequent way is to place them in cloths and leave them where cows and other domestic animals are kept, the animal heat being effectual in making the eggs hatch. When many are raised artificial heat is resorted to. The eggs are about the size of small pin-heads.

#### THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SILK-WORM.

The silk-worm, when it first makes its appearance, is small and helpless, incapable of eating hard food, hence it is timed to come when the mulberry leaf is in its tenderest condition. As the worms become more vigorous and their capacity for eating and digesting grows stronger, the mulberry leaves grow in solidity and nourishing power.

When the worms first make their appearance they occupy but little room, but as they grow larger they require more. The length attained by them varies, some growing to fully three inches, while others are considerably shorter. It is very interesting to study silk-worms during their eating periods. They are great eaters. They begin on the outer edge of the leaf, cut and eat uniformly, and in due time leave nothing but the ribs or skeleton. They do their entire work — hatch, grow, complete their cocoons, and lay their eggs — in about forty days. The entire season, from the time that the eggs are set to hatch till the cocoons are gathered, sorted, and marketed, lasts about fifty days.

The worms, in their progress to maturity, undergo four physi-

cal changes, during which they shed their skins, and the sericulturist looks with intense concern to the results of these changes, for they are attended with danger to the worms. Sometimes the worms, especially in the last stages, die by wholesale. It is said that destructive diseases among the silk-worms are less frequent in our days than formerly, owing to superior seeds and domestication. The health of the worms is regarded as of vital importance, hence they are frequently transferred to clean cases, and care is taken to give them plenty of fresh air. For disinfecting, the smoke of juniper wood is commended; also sulphur. The smoke of wood is said not to be injurious to silk-worms.

A middle-aged peasant near Turin, who had been engaged in the silk-worm industry from boyhood, is quoted as having stated that the silk-worms take their first sleep when six or seven days old. This sleep lasts about forty-eight hours, during which they eat nothing; the second sleep occurs a week later and its duration is about twenty-five hours, sometimes extending to thirty hours; the third sleep, when they are three weeks old, lasts about as long as the second; their last sleep, like their first, lasts about forty-eight hours. During all this time of sleep or stupor they eat absolutely nothing. Coming out of this condition all right, they eat for seven, eight or even ten days, depending upon the race, some eating longer than others.

#### THE SPINNING OF THE COCOONS.

When the worms are matured, ready to spin their cocoons, they become almost transparent. Oak twigs with dry leaves thereon are then carefully arranged over them. Often straw or other material is used. The worms go up these, select places, and proceed to emit a silk thread, and the work begins. It takes a worm seven or eight days of hard work to encase itself in a cocoon. It must keep pretty busy, indeed, for during this time it has been estimated it spins a thread 800 feet long—sometimes more than 1,000 feet.

The leaves are gathered by the peasant and his boys. During the first fifteen days of cultivation the father gives, progressively, one to four hours daily to this work, and four to twelve hours, progressively, for the next fifteen days. The wife is occupied feeding the worms and chopping the leaves, according to the age of the worms. During the first fifteen days this work requires from two to eight hours of the twenty-four, feeding

having to be done at regular intervals day and night. During the following fifteen days the woman works from eight to eighteen hours during the twenty-four. The last eight days of the raising period (which is comprised in the thirty days) require the whole attention of the man and wife, with the help of the two eldest children. When the worms have sought the twigs, specially prepared and ready for them to spin the cocoon, there are eight to ten days of repose. The industry requires diligent, intelligent and untiring attention. Fortunately the silk-worm has become so domesticated that it has no disposition to roam about, but remains in the open case or on the table where it is placed and fed. Were this not so, the labor of raising it would be infinitely greater and the industry might be wholly impracticable.

#### HOW THE PROCEEDS ARE DIVIDED.

In most cases the raising of silk-worm eggs is taken care of by the farmers, who share the profit with landlords. The latter provide the seed, charging one-half to the account of the farmer. The quantity distributed to any single farmer seldom exceeds an ounce, and is often limited to a few "anelli" (the twelfth of an ounce, so called because anciently the seed was measured through a thimble, "anello da cucire"), and is always proportioned to the estimated quantity of leaves produced on the farm. Therefore there is no active trade in the leaves, which are sold or bought only when the product exceeds or is less than the actual need. Under these circumstances the price of the leaves may fluctuate from 8 or 9 lire to 25 and over per quintal of 220.46 pounds, or from \$1.53 to \$4.82. If leaves must be bought the loss falls on the landlord, and if superfluous leaves are sold he has the profit. The money got from the sale of the cocoons is divided into two equal parts between the farmer and the landowner. If the mulberry trees are not cultivated on the farmer's field the necessary leaves must be bought by the landowner, but they must be gathered by the farmer. The wood (*bosco* or *frascate*), namely, a sufficient quantity of dry, small branches where the silk-worms are put to weave the cocoon; the fuel for artificial heat, when wanted; the artificial light, and the necessary paper must also be bought by the farmer. The average price of each ounce (30 grams) of seed in the last few years has been 12 lire (\$2.31). About 12 metric quintals (2,645.52 pounds) of leaves are neces-



sary to feed the silk-worms from 1 ounce of seed, and when the market is normal their cost may be calculated at about 5 or 6 lire (95 cents to \$1.15) per quintal. The expense for gathering the leaves is not included in this price, as it must be borne by the farmer.

#### THE WORMS WHICH ARE FAVORITES.

The seed is almost entirely of local production, and notwithstanding the small importation from other provinces or foreign countries, there is a large exportation from Italy, especially from Anghiari (Arezzo). The Japanese worms, formerly much favored, are almost discarded in favor of the indigenous races, the yellow of Ascoli and the yellow of Brianza. Experiments have shown that these produce a very good, fine silk and cocoons which give an abundant product. These silk-worms resist diseases, and the same may be said of their butterflies, which have always been vigorous and full of life and can lay five hundred eggs for each coupling.

Throughout Lombardy the most prized cocoons of late years are those produced from crossing the pure Italian yellow with the white of Shanghai. The product of this cross preserves the spherical shape and the fineness of the thread of the white Shanghai cocoon, while it takes the yellow color and a greater elasticity and strength than can be derived from the pure yellow alone. Preference has been given to this particular cross over the pure yellow, as the metamorphosis of the worm is of shorter duration, the worm requires a less quantity of nutriment, and gives a larger return of silk, inasmuch as the weight of the chrysalis, in proportion to the silk of the cocoon, is less than that of the pure yellow.

The production of raw silk is governed by the race cultivated, the care exercised, and the propitiousness of the season. As an average, one can calculate on a production of 45 to 50 kilograms (99.3 to 110.23 pounds) of cocoons for 30 grams (about 1 ounce) of seed. According to the quality of the race cultivated and the results obtained, the 30 grams of seed or the 45 to 50 kilograms of cocoons will possibly produce 4 to 5 kilograms of reeled silk. A kilogram (2.2046 pounds) of reeled silk therefore calls for from 10 to 12 kilograms (22.046 to 26.46 pounds) of cocoons, according to the race and the result of the cultivation.

## DISEASES OF THE SILK-WORM.

After 1855 a disease of the silk-worm (pebrine or atrophy) had destroyed almost completely the indigenous races in Europe. Therefore the silk-growers were compelled to direct their attention to China and Japan. It was in the latter country that, after many investigations, they found worms suited to Europe, to Italy in particular, and for several years these eggs were imported in large quantities. But after a short time the Japanese silk-worm also was caught by the atrophy. The germ of this disease having been discovered, the Italian races were little by little regenerated by microscopic selection. The director of the Royal Observatory for Silk Culture in Bologna contributed greatly to this regeneration, having found in the Apennines, near Tuscany, a small colony of silk-worms almost exempt from the deadly disease. From that time silk-growers, in order to be certain to get good eggs, abandoned almost entirely the old, irrational, and often dangerous system of themselves reproducing the eggs they wanted, and began to buy them, as they still do, of the royal observatories which the government founded in the silk-growing districts, or of private establishments put under the control of the above-mentioned observatories.

In these observatories there are public experimental cabinets for the microscopical analysis of silk-worms, chrysalids, butterflies; apparatus for the laying, gathering, and hatching of eggs, and refrigerators for the winter preservation of eggs. Every operation is performed according to the latest and best systems suggested by the most careful experiments, and nothing is neglected in order to secure eggs of the first quality, exempt from pebrine or atrophy. In this way the silk-growers are greatly helped to get a good and abundant crop.

Besides this disease, several others may injure the silk-worm, viz., flaccidity, yellowing (*giallume*), and calcination (*calcino*). Of these last three diseases, the first only is not scientifically known. Therefore science cannot suggest a means of curing and eliminating it; but in these provinces it is not common.

Yellowing is an accidental infection, not very dangerous. It can be easily cured or eliminated by a hygienic method of breeding silk-worms. Calcination, as analyses have shown, is produced by a cryptogam vegetating within the worm. This cryptogam always has its origin in spores that enter the silk-worm, either

with the air it inspires or with the leaves it eats. This disease can be eliminated by means of fumigations with sulphurous gas, which destroy the germinative power of these spores. These two diseases are not hereditary, and they are not so deadly as pebrine or atrophy.

#### THE COCOONS.

The cocoons, when complete, somewhat resemble peanuts in form. They vary much in size, the largest being about three-fourths of an inch long and a little over half an inch in diameter. When a cocoon has been bored through by the issuing moth it is spoiled, the fiber having been cut. When completed the cocoons are carefully gathered and sorted by the peasants who separate the good qualities from the inferior. Upon delivery at the filature they are again sorted into various grades by more experienced persons. The cocoons are taken to the market, for which in almost every town in Italy where silk-worms are grown the municipality has assigned a special place under rules to protect both sellers and purchasers. From the market the cocoons are sent to the exsiccaters for the suffocation of the chrysalids to prevent their emerging as moths and destroying the envelope of the cocoon. For this operation three systems are in use: direct radiation of heat, warm vapor, and a current of air heated to a temperature of more than 160° Fahrenheit.

The cocoons, after this operation, are brought into the galletiere (cocoon warehouses), and are there preserved until they are sent to the silk-spinning mills (filande). The cocoon warehouses are large buildings 6 or 7 meters (23.6 or 27.6 feet) high, with huge windows opposite one another, so as to have perfect ventilation. In these large rooms cocoons are put on wire nets, placed at a certain distance from one another, so as to have them in free and continual circulation of air. The cocoons in these provinces are generally bought by Lombard or Piedmontese spinners, whose mills are almost all in the north of Italy. After the cocoons have been spun in these mills, the raw silk is partly used by Italian silk factories and partly exported abroad.

#### SILK REELING.

The quantity of silk which each reeler produces in a day varies very much, according to system of reeling adopted, the quality of the cocoons, and the kind of silk to be produced. In general it can

be estimated that the work of each woman represents about 400 to 500 grams (14.1 to 17.6 ounces) of silk per working day. Beginners can produce from 300 to 400 grams (10.6 to 14.1 ounces), and experienced operatives from 450 to 500 grams (15.9 to 17.6 ounces) on an average per day.

These women earn from 1 to 1.10 lire (19.3 to 21.2 cents) per day of ten to twelve working hours. It is not usual to pay according to quantity of silk produced, as it is thought that such mode of payment would influence the operative to strive for quantity to the neglect of quality. She would not pay proper attention to the evenness, cleanness, and uniformity of the thread, nor would she have regard to the quantity of cocoons consumed, which is important, and must receive the greatest care. Men and boys are not employed in silk filatures, as the work is not suited to them, calling for a delicacy of touch which they have not.

On an average the working days of the silk reeler in a year are from 250 to 280, Sundays and other festivals being excluded. Work is generally suspended from December 24 until January 15. Another period of suspension is from the middle of May until the end of June. In these periods machines, steam generators, and other accessories of the silk industry are overhauled. In May and June the women are engaged at their homes with the culture of the silk-worm.

Generally speaking, these women have no other occupation, and it can therefore be estimated that they earn from 250 to 300 lire (\$48.25 to \$57.90) a year. In a filature of 100 basins, the manager earns from 3,000 to 4,000 lire (\$579 to \$772) a year, plus houseroom for his family. The bookkeeper earns 1,000 to 1,500 lire (\$193 to \$279.50) a year. Three or four overseers (women) are paid from 2 to 3 lire each (38.6 to 57.9 cents) per working day.

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## COMMERCE AND CULTURE.

THE following address was delivered by Sir Swire Smith, many contributions from whom have appeared in these pages, at the Central Municipal Technical School, Liverpool, England. He said :

I am glad to be here to-night to bear my testimony to the great educational progress of Liverpool. I made my first acquaintance with your scholastic institutions twenty-two years ago, on



the occasion of the visit of the Royal Commission on Technical Instruction, of which I was a member. In 1889 I was invited to address your students on an occasion such as this, and again in 1897, when I played the part of the candid friend in making comparisons that were not flattering to Liverpool regarding secondary education here and abroad. I feel it, therefore, to be a great compliment, after my plain speaking on my last visit, to be invited here again. Within these seven years Liverpool has been mending vigorously and substantially "all the time." In 1897 the average attendance at your elementary schools was less than 100,000; in 1904 it was nearly 117,000. The attendance at your continuation schools increased from 5,500 to 10,700, and your students receiving technical instruction increased in the same period from 6,600 to 11,100.

Your great educational expansion is fitly represented by the opening of this municipal technical school three years ago, which cost £124,000 (\$603,446). You have now in one magnificent block a complete group of public educational institutions — the Brown Free Library, the Derby-Mayer Museum, the Walker Art Gallery, and this Central Technical School — which in their imposing architecture and in their galleries of art treasures, and stores of literature, etc., are probably unequalled throughout the United Kingdom. I hear of two branch technical schools that have been erected at a cost of over £16,000 (\$77,864), and that the Liverpool Institute and the School of Art, which have done so much to uphold secondary and artistic education, have been handed over to the corporation. Then you have as the crown of this educational organization that magnificent monument of the public spirit and generosity of your citizens, the University of Liverpool, toward which they have contributed £180,000 (\$875, 970). Your municipal expenditure on your public schools and your grant of £10,000 (\$48,665) a year to the university are eloquent expressions of the belief of your authorities that the best spent money from the rates is that which is spent in cultivating the brains of the future ratepayers.

You seem to have shown a determination in your educational agencies to give equality of opportunity to rich and poor alike, so that talent, wherever it may be found, may be available for the enrichment of the community. The object of education has been defined as the fitting of the people for their work in life and for their duties as citizens. And surely no more powerful instrument could have been designed for the technical training of those engaged in the multifarious pursuits of Liverpool than this noble building.

#### MODERN ORGANIZATION OF COMMERCE.

We must never forget that Britain is above all a commercial nation — her existence depends upon her commerce — and only by the labor and enterprise of her people can she provide for

their sustenance and raise the vast sums annually required for her purposes of government and defence. How important, therefore, it is that their business training should be thorough and effective. The modern organization of commerce, with its mechanical inventions—the steam engine, the steamship, and the factory system, which have revolutionized the world—were of British origin. For a time this country held a practical monopoly as a manufacturing nation, and her goods displaced those of hand labor wherever they were exposed to competition. Her ships distributed her wares to the uttermost parts of the earth, and brought back the world's products in exchange.

In her enlarging commerce she received little help from the schools, and even less from the universities, for her pioneers were mostly, as Macaulay described them, "ignorant of letters, without art," and in their industrial operations they could only "learn by doing." It is not surprising, therefore, that half a century ago, the wealth of Britain having increased more rapidly than the civilization which should always accompany it, the nation generally showed but little concern for education. In the processes of her commercial evolution she first supplied other nations with her manufactures, then with machinery which she taught them how to use. She loaned her accumulating capital east and west to foreign countries and to her colonies for the building of factories to compete with her own, for railways to carry produce, and large sums for the development and stocking of farms in the United States and our colonies. Her loans went out in machinery and goods, which boomed her trade, and the interest and principal came back in wheat, cotton, wool, timber, etc., which extended the trade of the borrowers, and the exports and imports were mainly carried in British ships.

Britain set up all her rivals against her, she supplied them with mechanical equipment equal to her own, and thus laid the foundation of their prosperity, while it must be admitted she thereby for a time added enormously to her own. It has often been alleged that in selling her machinery so freely to outsiders she "killed the goose that laid the golden egg," but it cannot be disputed that the machine makers had as good a right to sell their wares as the machine users had to sell theirs, and the best foreign machinery has always been freely admitted into this country. Thus, in the very nature of things, Britain surrendered her monopoly beyond redemption, and for the last thirty years or more there has been equality of equipment among the manufacturing nations, and all realize that in the future the greatest success in the world's commerce will be achieved by that nation that can make the most effective use of education, science, machinery, and available advantages, and thus can place upon the shop counters of the world the commodities that the world wants. I have had, in my experience, exceptional opportunities of com-

paring, face to face with the facts, the resources and the aids which count for success in manufacturing industries in the leading countries of the world. I am fully acquainted with the many difficulties with which British manufacturers have had to contend in their competition with foreign rivals. I know something of the effect upon our industries of the lower wages and longer hours of competing operatives in other countries, and of other factors that have influenced the competition.

#### SUPERIORITY OF FOREIGN MANUFACTURES DUE TO TECHNICAL SKILL.

This is not the occasion for entering into these questions, but I have no hesitation in giving the unanimous opinion of the Royal Commission on Technical Instruction, recorded over twenty years ago, and confirmed after frequent investigations since that time, that in the most important instances of the ascertained superiority of foreign manufactures, that superiority has been due to the more effective application of the principles of science and art in the making of the goods. British manufacturers in the good old days of their preëminence put their money freely into machinery, and their faith in it, too, while they neglected the human machine. Our competitors procured British machinery and put their money into the brains of those who worked it. While other countries were spending millions on technical schools, Britain declared herself too poor to build them, yet at the same time she was maintaining these foreign schools by buying the product of those who were trained in them. We have since learned to our cost that it is in the physical and intellectual training of her men that Britain must "wake up" and safeguard her commerce. She will never keep out the skill of the foreigner by protecting the ignorance of her own people. But while I feel it my duty to speak of our deficiencies, I am not here to despair.

It is an old saying that Britain is often late, but not too late. She is now up and doing in this great educational movement, and Liverpool is coming into line with her most progressive neighbors. I take no stock in the gloomy forebodings of Britain's decay; I see no handwriting on the wall. It is not your public buildings, nor your docks, nor your shipping—magnificent as are these indications of wealth and prosperity—that make Liverpool, but your men and women. And never in the history of your city were your men and women better equipped for dealing with your ever-expanding commerce and for reaping the fruits of a higher civilization than now. I often wish that the progressive spirit of Lancashire and Yorkshire pervaded the whole country.

## RECORD OF THE NATION'S PROGRESS.

Even at present, with severe depression in many parts of the country, which we all hope will soon pass away, the records of the nation's progress have seldom been more encouraging. The value of our over-sea commerce last year amounted to over £900,000,000 (\$4,379,850,000), the greatest achievement that any country has ever known, and the expectations for this year are even more remarkable. The national income has increased from an estimate of £1,200,000,000 (\$5,839,800,000) in 1879 to £1,750,000,000 (\$8,516,375,000) in 1903. The investments of the country at home and abroad are still growing. The profits of business taxable for income tax reached £611,000,000 (\$2,953,431,500) in 1903-4—100 millions (\$486,000,000) more than ten years ago—and every penny of the tax produces over £2,500,000 (\$12,166,250). There is the same record of growth in the investments of the masses in savings banks, coöperative and building societies, etc., and everywhere we find a higher standard of comfort and of civilization than at any period of our history. True, other nations have prospered also; Britain has helped them all; and if only we will keep alert, the greater their prosperity the greater will be our gain. We have entered the twentieth century shorn of our monopolies of the nineteenth, and in the world's race for commerce we are meeting competitors equally armed with weapons of precision.

## EDUCATION THE HOPE OF BRITAIN.

Our position will depend on our national supply of "brains and brawn," and how we can best utilize them for the public service. The more I see of the progress of other countries the more do I realize that education is the main factor in the competition that lies before us; in proportion as we can raise the individual efficiency of our people in that proportion shall we hold our own. Some of our industries may be harassed by what we call unfair competition, but we must take consolation from the fact that those nations do not permanently hurt us that compel us to put forth our best. New markets are ever opening up, new wants are arising, and it would appear that the nations of the world were never more dependent on Britain than now, for she is each important nation's greatest customer. Consider for a moment the stupendous fact that this little island possesses half the shipping of the world, and that Liverpool is the common carrier for every country, and the storehouse and market for the greatest of the staple commodities, and also for the odds and ends of both hemispheres. In consequence of the protective tendencies of the competing countries, we are compelled to do a more miscellaneous trade than formerly, and to put ourselves into the position of the "Universal Provider" by supplying just what the world wants.



## CHEAPNESS AND EXCELLENCE THE TOUCHSTONE.

We can no more compel our customers to buy what we wish to sell than the angler can compel the trout in the stream to take the fly that he casts. More than ever our manufacturers will have to cater for two important classes of customers — the million who must have cheapness, and the tasteful and wealthy who demand excellence. Under these watchwords — cheapness and excellence — you find the characteristic productions of our industries represented by the labor of quantity and the labor of quality, in both of which we are destined to stand or fall against the world. In the labor of quantity, in supplying the goods for the millions, in which we have so long been supreme, we must be first in the adoption of all machinery and methods that will insure economy of production. You young men will have to enter the world with open minds, ready to learn all that you can from all sources, and to apply what you learn. In spite of all obstacles there is still, especially in the neutral markets, an immense field open for the trade in common goods for the million, which offers success and fortune to those who enter it with knowledge and with a determination to suit the convenience and taste of the buyers. As for the labor of quality, represented by excellence in the manufacture of superior goods and luxuries, every market in the world is open to it, and may I not say, even in spite of tariffs. This is the trade beyond all others that it is important that Britain should cultivate. It can only be secured by the greatest taste in designing, by the finest knowledge in applying science to industry, and by the most highly trained skill and workmanship. Success in this field means the capture of many prizes now held by our rivals, and the development of industries of enormous value to our home market, as well as to all the wealthy markets of the world.

## DISTRIBUTION AND COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.

Then there is that great question of distribution and of commercial education, in which the merchants and shippers of Liverpool are especially interested. I have no objection to the educated foreigners who come to this country and take situations as foreign correspondents. In London, as in other shipping centers, these positions are largely monopolized by Germans and Swiss. A young German wrote not long ago from one of these shipping houses to his friends at home, "You will be sorry to hear that we have still one Englishman in our office." Well, I want to see all Englishmen in Liverpool offices. This school will enable you young men of Liverpool to qualify for Liverpool situations. It will help you to develop local industries; but it will do more, it will cultivate the faculties of many students according to their natural bent, and will enable them to introduce new industries. You have among you great diversity of talent,

and a greater variety of industries in your city would proportionately tend to regularity of employment and increased prosperity. The scientific spirit is abroad, and this school will not only supply the technical instruction required by your craftsmen in your local industries, but it will qualify your engineers, electricians, chemists, and other specialists for entrance to the scientific departments of the Liverpool University, where they may obtain instruction that cannot be surpassed in any country, and thereby are able to qualify for scientific appointments.

#### THE NECESSARIES AND LUXURIES OF EDUCATION.

I have read with great interest the exhaustive report of Professor Sadler on the Secondary Education of Liverpool, which I think will be taken to heart in many other cities also. With the spirit of his ideals and conclusions I heartily agree, and it will be a great day for Liverpool when your educational system is coördinated and organized on the lines which he has recommended. I am well aware that in the opinions which I have expressed I may be charged with taking a somewhat mercenary and utilitarian view of education. It is not, however, that I am indifferent to the higher aspects of this great subject. For more than thirty years I have been intimately associated with the education of my own town, and more particularly with its technical school, through which several thousands of students have passed. Living among them, I have watched the career of many, and can testify to the soundness of their education; yet I confess that some of the most brilliant students and prize winners have not fulfilled the promise of their youth. They have been lacking in grit and energy, some of them looking upon education not as a means to an end, but as an end in itself. I have also known others who by perseverance and character have turned a little learning to good account in many ways, and have become leaders of men. I have seen youths and maidens — like many who are here — come to the evening classes in science and other subjects, with a slender equipment of scholastic knowledge, who have soon learned how to learn, and have had implanted in their minds a genuine love of knowledge. And I wish to say in defence of this so-called “bread and butter education” that whatever may be the ultimate object in view of the student, all true education leads to culture. I have known scores of students from the humblest ranks who passed from the half-time factory schools to evening classes like yours, who obtained scholarships to the highest colleges and universities, and are now worthily recognized as men of culture.

I have found among the apprentices from machine shops and factories many whose first idea in attending an evening class was to obtain knowledge that they could turn to practical account in the daytime, but who, after receiving advanced instruction in science were allured to the Elysian fields of literature beyond.

Many a student whose habits of study have been formed under the stimulus of bettering his material condition has been led to seek the solace and pleasure that he could get from books that elevated his moral character and contributed to the refinement of his nature. And when we consider the influence of such young men among their associates in the workshops and in the homes, we may realize how the practical studies are all the time mellowing their hearts while they are strengthening their faculties as men of affairs. Thus it is that in considering the broad question of education in relation to the millions who start out in life with no inherited capital but that in their brains and sinews, I am strongly of opinion that the education imparted in such a school as this is not only most fitting in itself for their industrial training, but in most instances it forms the best foundation for the extension of culture, and often acts as a stimulus toward its attainment. My advice, therefore, to the students who are before me is this, "Seek ye first the necessities of education, and the luxuries will be added unto you."

You will have noted that a controversy has been going on for some time as to the importance of the teaching of Greek in our old universities of Oxford and Cambridge. I do not think that you and I need to be seriously concerned about this question. I am reminded of the mischievous schoolboy at Eton who wrote on the door of the classical professor, "This road leads to nowhere." When the professor saw the inscription he wrote underneath it, "Nevertheless a good road on which to take exercise" — surely a terse and witty answer. But the answer reminds me of another story of a wealthy manufacturer, and one of the pioneers of the wool industry of Bradford. He had contracted some ailment, and he called in his medical man, who prescribed that he should get some dumb-bells and take vigorous gymnastic exercises. "But," asked the patient, "would not exercise in my factory do as well for me?" "Quite as well," replied the doctor. And this rich manufacturer could be seen perspiring among his workmen, packing the bales of pieces and loading them on to the wagons. He said he "didn't believe in doing work that didn't bring something in." Your technical instruction, like Greek, will give you good exercise, and yet, unlike Greek, will bring something in.

I have no fear that this country will suffer in its highest interests from too much attention being paid to the utilities of life. It is not so much what a young man learns as the spirit in which he enters upon his studies that determines the formation of his tastes, and culture is the bourn toward which the searcher for knowledge is ever tending, no matter in what field that knowledge may lie. I heartily accept Mr. Ruskin's definition as upholding the line which I have presumed to take on this question. He says, "Education briefly is the leading of human souls to what is best, and making what is best out of them; and these two

objects are always attainable together, and by the same means; the training which makes men happiest in themselves also makes them most serviceable to others. I believe that what it is most honorable to know, it is also most profitable to learn, and that the science which it is the highest power to possess it is also the best exercise to acquire." Emerson taught that "the acquisition of some manual skill and the practice of some form of manual labor were essential elements of culture, and this idea has been more and more accepted in the systematic education of youth." Would that it had been accepted in England as I have found it accepted in America.

#### PRACTICAL EDUCATION AND LITERARY CULTURE.

As to the bearing of the practical side of education on literary culture, Mr. Henry Smith Williams, in an article on "The Literature of Science," shows by remarkable examples that some of the greatest masters of literary style have been men of scientific training. I select the following among many:

"Buffon, famed a century ago for his mastery of literary style, was by profession a naturalist. Dante was learned in every phase of the known science of his time. Keats, 'one of the few writers of his time whom critics have ventured to name in the same breath as Shakespeare,' was trained in the profession of medicine. Goldsmith was a practising physician; so also was Schiller, the second poet of Germany. Goethe, 'whose genius raised the German language to a new plane as a medium of literary expression,' would be remembered as a discoverer in science had he never penned a page that can be called literature. Darwin's 'Origin of Species' owed much to the form of its presentation, but much more to the greater artist. Huxley, in 'Man's Place in Nature,' and in a score of other essays, brought all the resources of a marvelously flexible literary style to the aid of the equally revolutionary doctrines that Darwin had inaugurated. It is well to remember also among the teachings of history that material prosperity in the true development of civilization must go hand in hand with intellectual culture, and none have more ardently desired the spread of the latter than those who were in their day the great economic pioneers of the former."

Earl Stanhope said that:

"In Athens the study of the arts and the acquirements of literature were united and made to flourish by the pursuits of commerce. For while those great speculations in philosophy were being pursued in the groves of the Academy, and while Phidias was raising the masterpieces of his art—at that very time ships from every clime then known were crowding the wealthy ports of the Piræus."

Your own illustrious townsman, William Roscoe, so long ago



as 1817, at the opening of the Liverpool Royal Institution, in an eloquent discourse, remarked :

"We find that in every nation where commerce has been cultivated upon great and enlightened principles a considerable proficiency has always been made in liberal studies and pursuits. . . . Under the influence of commerce the barren islands of Venice, and the unhealthy swamps of Holland, became not only the seats of opulence and splendor, but the abodes of literature, of science, and of the fine arts, and vied with each other not less in the number and celebrity of eminent men and distinguished scholars than in the extent of their mercantile concerns."

Lord Beaconsfield, in an address to the students of the Athenæum at Manchester, sixty years ago, declared :

"It is knowledge that equalizes the social condition of man, that gives to all, whatever may be their political position, passions which are in common and enjoyments which are universal."

Here is the testimony of the great Lancashire man who was described by Mr. Gladstone as the "inspired bagman." In 1844 Mr. Richard Cobden said :

"There will be but one test for the future greatness of Manchester, and that will be a mental test and not a material test — that our destiny will be decided not by the expanse of bricks and mortar, not by the multiplication of steam engines, nor by the accumulation of wealth, but just in proportion as mental development goes forward and in proportion to the development of wealth and mental resources, just in the same proportion will our destiny be exalted, or the very reverse."

At Manchester, also, in 1847, the second great apostle of the "Manchester School," Mr. John Bright, spoke in a similar strain. After enumerating some of the examples of the commercial progress of the country, he asked :

"With these increased comforts and advantages that we enjoy shall we neglect that which is most noble because it is the indestructible portion of our being? Shall we be victors in the material world only, and gain no laurels in the intellectual? Or shall we dive to the deepest depths and soar to the loftiest heights; growing in mental stature and adding to all those outward blessings that surround us — yet neglect those which are purer and more lasting, and which spring up as a rich harvest from the culture of the mind?"

Here we have the loftiest and most eloquent tributes to culture from the most eminent promoters of trade and commerce that this country has produced. I could give many others, but I will content myself with a brief appreciation of this same culture by

the greatest industrial leader and the most generous friend of technical education of our time — nay, of all time — Mr. Andrew Carnegie. In his rectorial address to the students of St. Andrews he said, “Of what value is material compared with moral and intellectual ascendancy — supremacy not in things of the body, but in those of the spirit? What the barbarous triumphs of the sword compared with those of the pen? What the action of the thews and sinews against that of godlike reason, the murdering savage armies of brutal force against the peaceful armies of literature, poetry, art, science, law, government, medicine, and all the agencies which refine and civilize man, and help him onward and upward?”

And so to sum up, I rejoice in the assurance that the technical and scientific training which this great school is imparting to so many of you is not only providing each of you with working capital that can be utilized in the development of the industries of Liverpool, but is “leading your human souls to what is best” in the cultivation of your higher intellectual faculties. We sometimes speak of Britain as the “old country,” as if it had seen its best days and was entering upon its period of decay. It is venerable in years, and perhaps it clings rather tenaciously to some of its old-fashioned customs and ways; but it retains its vigorous strength, its love of freedom, its unbounded energy, its doggedness of purpose, and there has been no falling away in the breed and stamina of its people. It is when we see the young men and maidens of our country gathered together as they are here to-night that, as Burns says, “Hope springs eternal on triumphant wings,” and we feel assured of the enduring qualities of our race and of the perpetual youth of our country.

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### THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY OF GERMANY.

OF the many industries of the German Empire which have won splendid success and shown tremendous growth in the last twenty-five years, none has been more conspicuous than the chemical industry, one of the most vigorous and progressive of the Empire. Its achievements and its importance have been graphically set forth in the English “Contemporary Review” by Mr. O. Eltzbacher, who thinks Great Britain has much to learn from the methods pursued by her competitor of the Continent. This youngest of German industries has obtained almost the world monopoly of some of the most important branches of chemical production, many of the preparations universally used, and about four-fifths of the dyes consumed in the world being made in Germany.

Its importance is evidenced by the value of the yearly product — at least £60,000,000, and the value of its exports, £20,000,000. It ranks fifth among the great exporting industries of the country, and supplies 9 per cent of the foreign exports. The progress made in two decades and a half has not been spasmodic, but gradual and continuous. Since 1889 the German imports of manufactured chemical products — consisting largely of exotic products, such as natural indigo, extract of camphor — have been about stationary at £5,500,000; the exports within that period have increased by some £8,000,000, and the excess of exports over imports has more than doubled. The following table will give an idea of the direction in which the industry has developed and the value of the exports:

EXPORTS OF PRINCIPAL CHEMICAL MANUFACTURES.

	Antipyrine, Antiphebrine, etc.	Alizarine.	Aniline and other Dyes made from Coal Tar.	Oil of Aniline.	Quinine, etc.	Cyanide of Potassium.	Indigo.
1895 .....	£310,000	£580,000	£3,160,000	£340,000	£295,000	£180,000	£410,000
1896 .....	255,000	535,000	3,245,000	500,000	295,000	80,000	320,000
1897 .....	215,000	620,000	3,350,000	575,000	465,000	105,000	240,000
1898 .....	240,000	845,000	3,600,000	680,000	330,000	195,000	380,000
1899 .....	235,000	565,000	3,745,000	585,000	400,000	165,000	390,000
1900 .....	240,000	560,000	3,865,000	570,000	415,000	130,000	465,000
1901 .....	315,000	810,000	3,980,000	600,000	410,000	185,000	635,000
1902 .....	500,000	905,000	4,465,000	735,000	420,000	275,000	925,000

Germany produces annually 20,000 tons of alizarine, and more than 40,000 tons of other dyes, and in the production of the former she has no competition. The tendency to amalgamation, so manifest in various countries in numerous industries, is marked respecting the chemical industry of Germany, and some of the large enterprises employ from four to seven thousand hands. Since 1882 the number of employees has increased from 71,777 to 156,488 in 1901, and the wages paid increased from £4,981,000 to £7,996,000, the wages per head per annum being £6.7 higher in 1901 than in the nine years previous.

But the chemical industry has been of great benefit directly and indirectly to other industries. Chemical research has done much for agriculture and manufacture, many branches owing their greatness to the assistance received from the country's

trained chemists. Her beet sugar industry, now of large proportions, is due directly to the German chemist, without whom there would not be to-day any competition with cane sugar, her production being on an average 2,000,000 tons a year, valued at £20,000,000. Formerly the percentage of sugar extracted from beet was so small as to be unremunerative and impossible of competition with cane sugar; but, owing to the German chemists, that percentage has been increased from year to year, until beet sugar can now be obtained in formerly unthought-of proportions, and at formerly unthought-of prices. Since 1876-80 the quantity has been increased from 418,000 tons to 1,664,677 tons in 1899, and the per cent of sugar has been raised from 8.93 to 13. Of the work done in unsuspected lines, Mr. Eltzbacher writes :

The enormous national importance of a prosperous chemical industry lies not only in the invaluable assistance which that industry can give to nearly all other industries, but also in the unthought-of resources which it will create almost out of nothing. A century ago Great Britain's wealthy sugar colonies were the envy of the world, and sugar planters laughed at the idea of producing sugar from beet. To-day the West Indian sugar planters are ruined, and Germany produces the tropical product on a scale never dreamt of. Since 1890 Germany has produced artificial musk at Mülhauser; while natural vanilla is being replaced by chemical vanilline; Japanese camphor by synthetic camphor, and chemically-produced sugar by saccharine. The extraction of dyes from madder root and from various other plants has ceased, and vegetable dyes have given place to dyes made from tar. At present natural indigo is being crushed out of existence by the synthetic indigo produced by German chemists.

What the result is of this competition is plainly shown by the following figures :

	Acreage under Indigo in India.	Value of Exports of Indigo.
	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Tens of Rupees.</i>
1894-5.....	1,705,977	4,745,915
1895-6.....	1,569,869	5,354,511
1896-7.....	1,583,818	4,370,757
1897-8.....	1,366,513	3,057,402
1898-9.....	1,013,627	2,970,478
1899-1900.....	1,046,434	£1,795,007
1900-1.....	977,349	£1,423,987
1901-2.....	792,179	£1,234,837



While this decrease of the acreage and of the value of the exports of India has been occurring, the value of Great Britain's imports of indigo have decreased in the eight years from 1895 to 1902, inclusive, nearly £900,000. What was once India's natural monopoly has been seriously threatened and may eventually be destroyed by the skill of the chemist thousands of miles away from the seat of the industry. The artificial product, whatever may be said about quality, has had an enormous effect upon the production of the natural dye, shown by the table above.

But the effect upon German commerce of the discovery of making artificial indigo from what was formerly a by-product of little value is shown by the subjoined table:

	Imports of Indigo into Germany.	Exports of Indigo from Germany.
1895.....	£1,075,000	£410,000
1896.....	1,055,000	320,000
1897.....	635,000	240,000
1898.....	415,000	380,000
1899.....	415,000	390,000
1900.....	205,000	465,000
1901.....	215,000	635,000
1902.....	185,000	925,000

"A few years ago," as Mr. Eltzbacher says, "Germany was dependent for the indigo she used on India, and imported on balance indigo of the value of £600,000 per annum. Now she has completely reversed the balance, and in 1902 exported £740,000 more indigo than she imported." To show the importance of a strong chemical industry to a country he quotes Bismarck's remark: "Peace is being maintained less owing to the peaceful disposition of all governments than owing to the ability of chemists in inventing new kinds of powder. It sounds almost like irony, but it is the truth that the chemist is keeping the swords in their scabbards, and that he decides by his inventions whether there will be peace or war."

That Germany's prominence is not due to the fortunate possession of the raw materials is made plain by the figures of her exports and imports. On the contrary she imports five times more chemical raw products than she exports, and her dependence on other countries for the raw products is rapidly increasing. He attributes her success to the following causes:

The natural disposition and aptitude of the individual German for close, patient, persevering, and painstaking work and study.

The munificent and enlightened assistance and encouragement given by the German governments to the study of chemistry in all its branches, regardless of expense and regardless of immediate, profitable returns.

The spirit of combination and the absence of jealousy among chemical scientists and manufacturers, which have made scientific coöperation on the largest scale possible.

Although chemical talent of the highest order flourishes to a greater extent in England and France than in Germany, and though many of the most important chemical inventions were made outside Germany, the Germans have achieved their successes by combination and united plodding, and have most successfully exploited the discoveries made by men of other countries. The chemical production of aniline dyes was discovered by an Englishman, W. H. Perkin, yet to-day nearly all such dyes are made in Germany and, by the irony of fate, largely from English coal tar. "At present," the writer says, "Great Britain and France possess perhaps the foremost chemists. Yet the discoveries of these men will chiefly and perhaps only benefit the powerful German industries, with which neither the French nor the British industries can compete on terms of equality." By combining for the regulation of prices the chemical trusts have accomplished much for the industry in the Empire, and by dumping they have practically stifled foreign chemical works, thereby materially assisting in creating the present world-monopoly of the German industry.

Apothecaries in Germany are something more than mere vendors of pills and patent medicines: they are analytical chemists, and to their daily work in the laboratory many important discoveries are to be attributed. But to no man is more credit due for the prominence of Germany than to Liebig, the greatest German chemist. The seed he planted in the training of a large body of pupils in his methods has brought forth the rich harvest yearly garnered by the German chemical industry. Through his teaching, individual planless effort has made way for systematic and exhaustive research of many chemists under leaders of standing, and the problem to be solved is patiently pursued in every direction by the combined forces of chemistry until the final aim is arrived at. Every success, every progress, every discovery, has

become common property, and has become the starting point for further and greater success. In the laboratories of the German universities and of the great chemical works thousands of highly-trained chemists coöperate as systematically as workmen in a factory. In Great Britain there is lacking this mutual helpfulness. Each British chemist is an island, standing alone; and though some of the greatest chemists are Englishmen, the chemical industry is languishing because of the lack of organized and coördinated effort. From the rise and success of the German industry much can be learned by the scientific and industrial part of the British nation.

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### THE AUSTRALIAN WOOL TRADE.

THE annual wool review for 1905, issued by Goldsborough, Mort & Co., under date of March 15, and covering the year from March 1, 1905, to February 28, 1906, is at hand. From it we make the appended excerpts.

After referring to the congratulations which were in order the previous year because of the eminently satisfactory season, both as to pasturage and prices, and expressing gratification over their ability to record a continuance of good times, with prospects ahead that were never better, the report continues:

For the first time for many years heavy monsoonal rains have fallen in February over the greater part of Queensland and portions of New South Wales in such generous quantity as to give much lasting benefit and to ensure a good lambing over a vast area of country.

Apart from the satisfactory state of affairs referred to above, the most striking feature of the year has been the fact that a record has been established in the Australian wool markets, in that the number of bales sold therein for the season has reached the enormous total of over 1,100,000 bales. The total estimated Australian production is 1,400,000 bales, so that the colonial sales have absorbed approximately 82 per cent, leaving London of first hand Australian wools about 300,000 bales, practically the same quantity as were handled there last year. The increase in the colonial sales amounts to about 200,000 bales, representing the whole of the increased clip produced in the commonwealth.

Respecting the expected increase in the production of Australia, the prospect of sustained or increased values for the prod-

uct, and the American demand, the falling off in which is explained, the report says :

In the face of a further augmented clip next season (which it is safe now to forecast) the legitimate demand does not diminish. consumption goes on unabated, supplies from other sources are decreasing, and, as far as one can judge, conditions are very favorable for good prices for all products to the Australian pastoralist for some time to come.

The American demand has continued a dominant feature in our market, but many clips usually within their range were so affected by the protracted dry autumn in Victoria, and the disastrous bush fires in Riverina, that they would not touch them, and in consequence their purchases have not reached last year's figures. However, when high-class merinos or attractive crossbred parcels, particularly in sound condition and of good length, were available, their competition elevated them to highly satisfactory prices.

A rearrangement of sales in Victoria was effected by which it was decided to sell four days weekly — three in Melbourne and one in Geelong — but quantities offered were not restricted and no relief was afforded. Notwithstanding increased quantities disposed of the sales were ended in January. It has now been decided, notwithstanding the good prices realized at the sales, to restrict the quantities to be offered in the two markets, the effect of which is expected to be the holding of weekly sales from early in October to the end of February.

During the year, carrying out a well-defined policy for closer settlement, the Government of Victoria purchased several well-known estates, hitherto given over to sheep raising, which have been cut up and are being sold in small areas on favorable terms. In New South Wales the same policy is being adopted not only by the Government but by the owners themselves. The result of this policy will be that a number of favorably known brands of wool will be missing in future clips, for the land will be used for mixed farming and the wool produced will partake of the characteristics of the parcels now produced by farmers.

In favored districts there was a strong demand for pastoral properties and many changed hands during the year, principally for division and for agriculture. There appears to be more land in such desirable districts offering at fair prices for the purpose of closer settlement than can be absorbed readily.

The cessation of the Russo-Japanese war had no adverse effect



on wool prices, although the Japanese, who were prominent buyers in 1904, were not much in evidence during the season just closed.

Respecting the pastoral outlook the report says :

Since the publication of our last review, the pastoral position has been much varied. In May and June good rains fell over portions of New South Wales, and patchy rain in Queensland. This, however, was succeeded by very hot and dry weather, with the result that the whole of Queensland and the greater portion of New South Wales were very dry, a condition only alleviated by the copious rains just fallen throughout the greater portion of the States. Excepting over isolated portions of the interior, all anxiety is now at an end, as feed for many months should be abundant, and the result of the lambing season which is at hand is practically assured.

Prices in the fat stock market receded somewhat from the higher prices ruling in 1904, caused partly by the continued dry season, compelling owners to sell freely, and partly by increased supply. There is now an extensive withdrawal of store stock from the market as the immediate effect of the rain. A conspicuous feature in the live-stock market during the past season was the continued development of trade in fat lambs for export, a trade which has now reached proportions not previously known in Australia.

Rabbits continue to cause the gravest anxiety; they are increasing rapidly, and have in large numbers invaded districts previously free from them. Their steady progress north through Queensland and west through Western Australia continues. Though every year brings forth new methods of attempting to cope with them, we are still without an economical and effective means of widespread destruction. Very expensive measures, though systematic and continuous, have not been more than an obstacle to their progress. We emphasize the opinion expressed in our last review as to the absolute necessity of the various governments dealing with their unoccupied Crown lands, which have become breeding grounds for all kinds of vermin.

The official figures of the number of sheep in the Commonwealth in 1904 show a large gain over those for the preceding year. The total announced is 65,822,644, considerably more than half a million in excess of the number returned in 1881, from which year great increases occurred during the next ten years. It was in 1891 that the largest number ever carried in the Commonwealth was recorded, and it is to be hoped, with such favorable seasons, the numbers from this time forward may be rapidly built up until the conditions prevailing in 1891 are duplicated. Relief

did not come a day too soon, for many of the Australian pastoralists were actually in the hands of the money lenders, and good clips, with accompanying high prices, were a necessity to keep them from bankruptcy. Even with the satisfactory returns of the past two seasons to their credit, they are just beginning to recover the spirit of hopefulness for the future and to regain a firmer financial footing.

The following table gives the numbers of sheep reported for three recent years :

SHEEP IN THE AUSTRALIAN COMMONWEALTH IN 1901, 1903, AND 1904,  
RESPECTIVELY.

STATES.	1901.	1903.	1904.
New South Wales.....	41,857,099	28,656,501	34,526,894
Victoria.....	10,841,790	8,774,731	10,167,691
Queensland.....	10,030,971	8,392,044	10,843,470
South Australia.....	5,060,540	5,350,258	5,820,301
South N. Territory.....			51,538
Western Australia.....	2,542,844	2,600,633	2,856,290
Tasmania.....	1,792,481	1,597,053	1,556,460
Commonwealth.....	72,125,725	55,371,220	65,822,644

Concerning the wools sold in the Melbourne market these observations are made :

From whatever point of view the clip of 1905 may be judged, certainly by those most competent to express an opinion the term "rotten" would appear to have been the one in most general use, and to a very large extent was fully justified. From the outset, when the earlier clips arrived, this tenderness and break in the staple was very apparent, and the question was frequently asked, "Is this what we may expect of all the clips?" Unfortunately, as the season progressed, the reply was given in the affirmative by the clip itself, for rarely have we seen a staple which, although to the eye appearing so attractive, proved on handling so bitterly disappointing. Apart from this defect, broadly speaking, the clip was thinner, and lacked the density of its predecessor. Undoubtedly the long summer and dry autumn experienced, followed by very copious rains in April, May, and June, bringing a superabundance of green feed, caused the decided break in the staple, from which all the clips have more or less suffered. Added to this were the disastrous bush fires, perhaps the worst on record, which occurred in Eastern Riverina and over

a large area of the western district of Victoria. The hogget and younger wools were most adversely affected.

The foregoing remarks would apply to the western and northern districts of Victoria, Riverina, and southeast of South Australia.

Taken all round, the clip from Queensland was good, although many of the wools from central districts were in poor condition, being thin, somewhat impoverished, and presented anything but an attractive appearance. The Darling district, and in fact the whole of the western division of New South Wales, experienced an ungenerous season; the clip, however, was of exceptional softness, and finer than previously. Tasmania, on the other hand, produced a clip, if anything a shade lighter in condition, and which differed materially from the main Island wools, inasmuch as it was sound; in other respects, as alluded to in our last review, the tendency in the greater proportion of clips is still to a more robust type.

In marked contrast to the fleece portion was the production of lambs' wool. Both in quantity, quality, length, and general attractiveness, the 1905 clip has had few to equal, certainly none to excel it, its comparative freeness of all vegetable matter being a special feature.

In the Sydney market 633,631 bales were sold as compared with 499,030 bales for the previous year. Of the wools there disposed of the report says:

The season just closed has proved one of the most satisfactory for many years past for both sellers and buyers. A good healthy staple has been one of the chief characteristics of the clip, and, although in many instances has shown rather heavy condition, on the whole has proved less deceptive to buyers from a "yielding" point of view.

It is worthy of remark that that fineness of quality for which Australian wools have so long been renowned has this season been found wanting, many brands noted for extra fineness having changed to a more robust type. In some instances, where bush fires have devastated the country, sheep from those districts have naturally suffered from want of feed, and weakness of staple and stunted growth have been very marked. The humid conditions under which shearing progressed in some parts of the State also had its effect, in that various wools were found to have lost in weight after being baled for market. Burrs and seeds have hardly been as pronounced as usual; several well-known brands, which hitherto have been infested with this extraneous matter, have been tolerably free. Crossbreds have been in lesser quantity.

Speaking generally, the clip has given the grower a better average return per head than in many previous years. Mudgee wools

showed similar condition to last year, possessing some excellent quality and fatty condition. Burrs were also in evidence. New England wools made an excellent show, the wool, as usual, possessing very good condition, a bright appearance, with a nice soft handle. Charcoal-tipped lots were more in evidence than usual. From the southern district many clips showed a good deal of weakness of staple, and in many cases pronouncedly tender, with a stunted growth, attributable to want of feed through bush fires. Riverina wools displayed a good shafty staple, freer from seed and dust than usual, whilst wools from the central division have seldom been in better order, showing good growth and nice healthy condition.

The following table gives the percentage distribution of total Australian sales for the past five years:

	Home Trade.	Continent.	United States.	Other Destinations.
1901-2.....	31½	54½	4	10
1902-3.....	24	61½	5½	9
1903-4.....	23½	65½	3½	7½
1904-5.....	25½	56	7½	10½
1905-6.....	23½	63½	4½	8½

Of the total sales in the Australian markets the United States bought 53,500 bales, as compared with 71,500 the previous year, while Japan bought but 6,700 bales instead of the 26,000 of last year. The Continent took 731,500 bales, England 272,300 bales, and local manufacturers and scourers 85,300 bales.

## ENGLAND'S CONSUMPTION OF MUTTON AND LAMB.

THE annual review of the English frozen meat trade by W. Weddel & Company of London is most complete and comprehensive, the tremendous necessities of that consuming market being shown by the tables we herewith produce. The figures demonstrate the vast numbers of lambs and sheep which are yearly required from the three chief exporting countries of Australia, New Zealand, and the River Plate. Add to the totals here shown those for the United States; and in England and this country no fewer than twenty million sheep and lambs go every year to the shambles to satisfy the demands of the meat-eating portion of the



population of these countries. Such yearly depletion of the sheep capital of the world is no slight tax on the producing capacity of the flocks.

If two countries require sheep in such numbers, what must be the consumption of the world? And is it much wonder that the flocks of the world have, within recent years, shown such decided tendencies to decrease? It has been only within the past two decades that the pampas of South America, the plains of Australia and the pastures of New Zealand have been made tributary to the markets of Europe. Only within that time has this extensive business of carrying frozen and chilled carcasses to the consuming millions of England's metropolis, and her numerous manufacturing cities, been begun and extended to the proportions of the present day. This bringing of the far distant producing countries into touch with the breakfast tables of England and the Continent has been accomplished only by the establishment of numerous freezing works, the construction of vessels especially adapted to the requirements of the trade, the carrying of the meat from the producers to the consumers at reasonable rates, and the production by the flockmasters of the countries of sufficient numbers of sheep to support the trade.

To show the importance of the British market to this trade it is but necessary to state that of the 367,550 tons, the approximate output of all meats by the world's freezing works, 311,865 tons or 85 per cent of the whole, were sent to the United Kingdom, and but 55,685 tons went to other markets. The figures for mutton and lambs sent from the chief producing countries are shown in the following table:

## IMPORTATIONS OF FROZEN MUTTON AND LAMB INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM, YEARS 1886-1905.

Year.	MUTTON. (Carcasses.)			Totals.	LAMBS. (Carcasses.)			Totals.	Totals Mutton and Lambs.
	Australia.	New Zealand.	River Plate.		Australia.	New Zealand.	River Plate.		
1886...	66,960	655,888	464,639	1,187,547					1,187,547
1887...	88,811	655,778	687,418	1,432,007		110,639		110,639	1,542,646
1888...	112,214	848,537	924,003	1,884,754		90,694		90,694	1,975,448
1889...	86,547	953,882	1,009,936	2,050,365		114,404		114,404	2,164,769
1890...	207,984	1,266,949	1,206,699	2,681,632		266,444		266,444	2,948,076
1891...	334,684	1,535,106	1,130,034	2,999,824		358,999		358,999	3,359,823
1892...	504,738	1,260,882	1,265,679	3,031,299		278,723		278,723	3,310,022
1893...	605,660	1,428,772	1,385,706	3,420,138	9,222	470,251	4,712	484,185	3,904,323
1894...	923,775	1,512,455	1,426,056	3,862,286	15,585	445,808	434	461,823	4,324,109
1895...	922,246	1,676,928	1,630,448	4,229,622	46,655	732,649	4,785	784,089	5,013,711
1896...	1,533,139	1,425,067	1,786,305	4,744,511	110,104	786,828	5,975	902,907	5,647,418
1897...	1,312,855	1,682,123	2,109,521	5,104,499	94,562	1,021,722	11,950	1,128,234	6,232,733
1898...	1,159,319	1,647,041	2,390,615	5,196,975	89,334	1,137,060	6,722	1,233,116	6,430,091
1899...	971,101	2,011,175	2,411,339	5,393,615	233,500	1,238,925	3,379	1,475,804	6,869,419
1900...	627,945	1,862,149	2,329,545	4,819,639	315,979	1,294,911	3,292	1,614,182	6,433,821
1901...	796,655	1,838,333	2,630,839	5,265,827	429,903	1,395,788	3,266	1,828,955	7,094,782
1902...	186,753	1,879,961	2,715,469	4,782,183	537,544	1,788,100	112,027	2,437,671	7,219,854
1903...	213,880	2,426,081	2,943,988	5,583,949	264,157	2,157,679	174,449	2,596,285	8,180,234
1904...	121,799	1,980,639	2,730,560	4,832,998	328,524	1,904,592	207,141	2,440,257	7,273,255
1905...	461,902	1,751,229	3,030,130	5,243,261	906,536	1,953,337	173,080	3,032,953	8,276,214

An examination of the foregoing exhibits the impressive growth of the trade since 1886, both in the shipment of mutton and lamb. Beginning with a total of 1,187,547 mutton carcasses and no lambs, the total for the former in 1905 reached 5,243,261, for the latter 3,032,953, and for both, the impressive total of 8,276,214. In the mutton business since 1887, at which time the export of New Zealand was overtaken, the River Plate has with rare exceptions sent the largest number of carcasses to market, until at the present time she sends considerably more than one-half the total number received by the United Kingdom. Since 1890 the numbers exported by New Zealand have remained remarkably steady between a limited range. The highest point was reached in 1903, when 2,426,081 carcasses were shipped, and the lowest was touched in 1892, when 1,260,882 were exported. The figures for 1905 are not quite midway between these extremes.

Australia, whose mutton exports exceeded the million mark in 1896, 1897, and 1898, and then began to decrease markedly after

1901, gave evidence last year of a new start toward the customary figures. Her percentage of increase during the past year was larger than her rivals, the actual number sent forward being nearly four times as many as the total for the previous year.

Not only in mutton shipments but also in lamb carcasses forwarded did Australia show a large increase, her total reaching well toward the million mark, nearly 369,000 more than her former largest figures. Her shipments of both mutton and lamb were 1,368,438 carcasses, a total exceeded but twice since her trade in these lines began and these two years were 1896 and 1897, when drought conditions, perhaps, influenced killing and shipment. The lamb trade, however, is dominated by New Zealand, whose Canterbury lambs are eagerly sought and usually top the market. Tremendous strides have been made in this line by the New Zealand producers within ten years, the total for 1905 exceeding that for 1896 by more than eleven hundred thousand. Since the latter date the number has been constantly growing larger, the 1,953,337 for 1905 being exceeded but once during the interval. While the River Plate leads in the number of mutton carcasses sent, New Zealand leads in the number of lambs and the total of mutton and lambs. Strange as it may seem the River Plate countries up to 1902 sent practically no lambs, and even since that year the shipments have been comparatively insignificant when compared with the total receipts.

From this report we also learn that the number of sheep in Great Britain, according to the agricultural returns, is placed at 29,076,738, the lowest total since 1888.

During the year two practically new sources of supply were tapped, Uruguay and the country formerly known as Patagonia, whose chief point of shipment is Punta Arenas. From each of these, shipments of fairly satisfactory quality were received. In the carrying trade between Great Britain and the three producing countries 172 steamers are engaged, with a capacity of 10,919,200 fifty-six pound carcasses.

In contemplating these figures of meat shipments and in considering the quantities of wool yearly received from Australasia and Argentina one is forced to ask the question: Without the production of these countries, what would be England's position both as to meats and wool? In fact, the question might be broadened in its application and it might be phrased thus: What would be the position of the wool manufacturing industry and

the wool consuming population of the world without the contribution of these countries to the wool and meat supplies of the world? And if such increases, as are shown by the foregoing table to have occurred in the consumption of mutton and lamb, are to continue, without a corresponding increase in the numbers of the flocks, the question may fittingly be asked: What of the future? With constant decreases recorded in countries where population is rapidly multiplying; with the inclination of the farmer, so frequently manifest, to turn his attention to dairying, where the returns are more frequent and supposedly more remunerative; with the fear that the sheep walks now available are pastured to their limit, as is frequently heard, the answer to the question is to be sought apparently in the bringing of considerable areas of new territory to the uses of the flockmaster and his priceless but often unappreciated possessions. It is to these pastoral countries, supplying so large a proportion of the wool product of the present, and to others not fully developed, rather than to the more intensively cultivated countries, that we must look in the future, as we have for the past several decades, for the wool supply to be offered in the world's marts. It seems certain that, if the slaughter increases in the years to come in a ratio corresponding to that of the past twenty years; if the flocks increase no more rapidly than they have during that time; if no heavier fleeces are produced by more scientific breeding and improvement of flocks, and the requirements of the manufacturing industry continue as at present, without even increasing, then the days of plenty and a return to the corresponding low prices of a few years ago are not near at hand. But it is not well to take too pessimistic an outlook at the situation; for the chances are that in the future, as in the past, some solution of the situation will be found by the resourceful men who are engaged on either side of the industry.

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### ARE WOOL VALUES SAFE?

THE following valuable contribution to the discussion of the foregoing question we reprint from the "Bradford Observer" of March 29, 1906. It says:

The second series of London wool sales for the present year have closed, with values anywhere from 10 to 15 per cent



above those at the close of January. With 60's tops at 2s. 4d. and 40's at 18d., we have to go back to quite exceptional years for a parallel. The years 1889 and 1899 were years of speculative activity, and both were followed by collapse. It is, therefore, not at all a matter of surprise that we should have some heart-searching as to where this thing will lead. If the conditions are the same as they were when prices were on the present level, then we must expect a corresponding sequence of events. It is a complaint now, as it was then, that the upward movement comes from the "wool end," and is not justified by the condition of the manufacturing branch. There has been no corresponding improvement in the demand for goods, but rather a dogged and steady resistance to higher prices. This is, however, to take a narrow and too distinctly local view of the situation. The typical Bradford trade only flourishes when wool is abundant and cheap—that is when woollens and tweeds cannot compete with the solid worsted serge. And Bradford manufacturers and spinners would have to be very busy indeed before they would admit that the time had arrived for a rise in the price of tops. But, whatever may have been the case in the saleroom last week, it is universally admitted that—for the past two years at any rate—the "speculator" has let wool severely alone, and that the world's wool market has never enjoyed such a complete immunity from merely speculative operations. It is time, therefore, to drop the cant about the rise not being justified. The wool-grower is just as much entitled as the wheat-grower to get what he can for his product. It is quite true that the draper and the merchant and the manufacturer and the spinner have done as little as possible to help it up, and the speculator has done nothing. All the more reason, therefore, for regarding the situation as sound and healthy.

But, it is objected, there must be a turning point some day, and prices are surely at a dangerous level now. There is, of course, every likelihood that prices will some day come down, and there is always the possibility that somewhere in the future wool may again be as cheap as it was in 1901. But neither of these propositions is a demonstrable certainty, and the latter is, indeed, almost demonstrably impossible. Some articles—coal, for instance—are never likely again to be as low in price as they were within the memory of men now not very old. And the reason for this is that conditions have changed so materially that it is almost inconceivable that they should again occur in the same combination. And it may be that we have parted forever with wool at fourpence a pound. There is at least no human probability that any of us will see it at that price within the next ten or fifteen years.

What, then, are the conditions which have so altered the prospect of our having cheap wool in the near future? The chief and great reason is that the world is not standing still. For six

years in this country we have been under a cloud. The awful presence of war and the almost more unbearable legacy of that war have so depressed the industrial and commercial "interests" that we had almost come to believe that our days of progress were over. We have been "marking time," and it is only during the past twelve months or so that we have felt the sap rising, and have awakened to a new belief that the old tree has not done growing. All this time, however, other countries, notably the greatest of them all — America — have been marching onward with great strides. New countries like Japan and Canada have to be reckoned with, and the older European States, Russia alone excepted, have had uninterrupted peace and prosperity. The population of the United States is to-day nearly eighty-five millions, and it is a people who have a high standard of living and probably unequalled purchasing power. Now, up to ten years ago, it may be said that the world's wool production was keeping pace with the increase in the world's requirements. Indeed, it may be admitted that it was getting a little ahead of it. What was the rate of increase prior to 1896? If, for the sake of simplicity, we deal only with figures as they relate to the production of the British colonies of the Southern Hemisphere, these will be in no sense misleading, for the growth in the clip of Argentina and other South American countries was quite as rapid. Taking, then, the period since 1860, we find that the expansion of the imports of colonial wool into Europe and North America went on at an ever increasing ratio for thirty-five years and then stopped. In 1860 the imports were 187,000 bales only, they were 546,000 in 1870, and 869,000 in 1880. The year 1883 was the first that crossed the million line, and twelve years later the two-million line was crossed. The increase was almost absolutely continuous all the time, only four years out of the thirty-five showing even a small falling off. From 1860 to 1870 the average yearly addition was about 35,000 bales, from 1870-80 it was 42,000 bales, from 1880-90 it was, in round figures, 54,000 bales, and the annual increase in the five years 1890-95 was 120,000 bales. Since reaching the high-water mark of 2,001,000 bales in 1895 we have receded, until in 1904 the imports had dropped to 1,371,000 bales, though last year showed the encouraging recovery to 1,633,000 bales.

Now, as a general proposition, it is a fair statement that the consumption of wool in the thirty-five years from 1860 to 1895 grew at about the same rate as did the production. Sometimes the wool would come rather faster than it could be absorbed, sometimes the converse would be true, but over the whole period it is undeniable that the wool went into consumption about as fast as it came. At any rate it was not burned, and it was not buried, or otherwise destroyed. In 1895 wool had undoubtedly accumulated, and possibly we may have had nearly two years' requirements in stock, though we should think this an outside

estimate. No one would venture to say that to-day we have, on the restricted consumption brought about by high prices, any more in sight than will just see us through until the next clip comes to hand. France is credited with more foresight than the rest in that she laid in a larger share of the last Australian clip in the colonial salerooms. England, Germany, and America, hanging back on the chance of easier prices at the March sales, have made a rod for their own backs. Of course, it is true that during the past two or three years we have traveled far in the art of substituting cotton and other things for wool, and it is cotton that we have to deal with as a competitor. But there remains a large domain that only wool can fill and within the past two months we have seen a marked quickening of activity in that region. The present consumption in the Bradford trade must certainly be quite 10 and is perhaps 20 per cent larger than it was all last year, and so far there are no indications of curtailment in other markets. Indeed, there is some reason to regard this late increase in the demand as world-wide rather than local. And yet — again using the figures relating to colonial wool as a guide — we are as regards supplies almost precisely where we were fifteen years ago.

Though admitting that higher prices have restricted consumption to some extent, it is not conceivable that what may be termed the natural increase in demand has been satisfied. For thirty-five years, as we have seen, that demand grew at an ever-accelerating rate. If our supplies had gone on increasing (even without any further acceleration in the rate) after 1895, as they did before, we should last year have had 3,201,000 bales of colonial wool instead of 1,633,000, as was actually the case! That is the true measure of the leeway that has to be made up before we need expect to have wool again at £10 a bale. It will be many years indeed before we can look for any such total, and when it comes within sight, the world's need, growing all the time, will still be ahead of it. Wool prices may come down within the next year or two, or even next month, but the fluctuation will not be due to the shrinking of the world's wool requirements or to any phenomenal increase in the world's supplies.

## CENSUS OF MANUFACTURES, 1905.

*(Preliminary Summaries.)*

WE have received from the Hon. S. N. D. North, the Director of the United States Census, the annexed preliminary summaries of the census of manufactures taken in 1905. We hope to follow these with the detailed statements for the woolen and worsted industries, which are yet to be issued.

Comparative figures for 1905 and 1900 are shown in the following summaries :

## WOOL MANUFACTURES.

*(Embraces carpets and rugs, felt goods, wool hats, woolen goods and worsted goods.)*

	1905.	1900.	Per cent of Increase.
Number of establishments . . . .	1,213	1,414	14.2 <sup>1</sup>
Capital . . . . .	\$369,861,651	\$310,179,749	19.2
Salaries officials, clerks, etc. :			
Number . . . . .	5,612	4,495	24.8
Salaries . . . . .	\$8,176,750	\$6,455,495	26.7
Wage-earners :			
Average number . . . . .	179,974	159,108	13.1
Wages . . . . .	\$70,807,524	\$57,933,817	22.2
Miscellaneous expenses . . . . .	21,580,201	17,329,932	24.5
Cost of materials . . . . .	242,561,096	181,159,127	33.9
Wool in condition purchased :			
(Quantity consumed) :			
Total pounds . . . . .	483,526,095	394,369,523	22.6
Foreign (pounds) . . . .	152,562,532	136,434,961	11.8
Domestic (pounds) . . . .	330,963,563	257,934,562	28.3
Value of products . . . . .	\$380,934,003	\$296,990,484	28.3
Machinery :			
Cards . . . . .	8,266	6,605	25.1
Combing machines . . . . .	1,549	1,451	6.8
Producing spindles . . . . .	3,457,211	3,063,886	12.8
Doubling and twisting spin-			
dles . . . . .	563,887	447,213	26.1
Looms . . . . .	77,985	74,190	5.1

<sup>1</sup> Decrease.



FELT HATS.<sup>1</sup>

	1905.	1900.	Per cent of Increase.
Number of establishments ....	216	171	26.3
Capital .....	\$23,258,104	\$16,701,308	39.3
Salaried officials, clerks, etc.:			
Number .....	1,367	726	88.3
Salaries .....	\$1,488,236	\$943,998	57.7
Wage-earners:			
Average number .....	22,028	18,880	16.7
Wages .....	\$11,302,237	\$9,119,264	23.9
Miscellaneous expenses .....	2,811,197	1,416,737	98.4
Cost of materials:			
Total .....	\$15,975,206	\$13,513,668	18.2
Animal hair and fur.....	6,747,436	6,376,991	5.8
All other materials .....	9,227,770	7,136,677	29.3
Value of products:			
Total .....	\$36,629,353 <sup>2</sup>	\$27,811,187	31.7
Felt hats:			
Number of dozens .....	2,611,875	1,882,372	38.8
Value .....	\$34,314,234	\$25,885,506	35.2
All other products includ- ing bodies and hats in the rough.....	2,315,119	2,425,681	4.6 <sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Includes only hats made of fur, wool hats reported separately. Ed.<sup>2</sup> Does not include \$333,441 by-products reported from other industries.<sup>3</sup> Decrease.

## HOSIERY AND KNIT GOODS.

	1905.	1900.	Per cent of Increase.
Number of establishments ....	1,079	921	17.2
Capital .....	\$106,663,531	\$81,860,604	30.3
Salaried officials, clerks, etc.:			
Number .....	4,303	2,809	53.2
Salaries .....	\$4,436,941	\$3,124,798	42.0
Wage-earners:			
Average number .....	103,714	83,387	24.4
Wages .....	\$31,536,024	\$24,358,627	29.5
Miscellaneous expenses.....	10,320,201	6,599,865	56.4
Cost of materials.....	76,593,782	51,071,859	50.0
Value of products.....	136,558,139 <sup>1</sup>	95,482,566	43.0
Machinery:			
Producing spindles .....	596,362	510,172	16.9
Knitting machines.....	88,374	69,047	28.0

<sup>1</sup> Does not include hosiery and knit products to the value of \$1,579,633, manufactured in establishments classed as cotton mills, millinery and lace goods, shirts, and sporting goods.

COTTON MANUFACTURES.  
(Including cotton small wares.)

	1905.	1900.	Per cent of Increase.
Number of establishments . . . .	1,154	1,055	9.4
Capital . . . . .	\$608,203,922	\$467,240,157	30.2
Salaried officials, clerks, etc.:			
Number . . . . .	6 981	4,902	42.4
Salaries . . . . .	\$10,237,891	\$7,350,199	39.3
Wage-earners:			
Average number . . . . .	315,874	302,861	4.3
Wages . . . . .	\$96,205,796	\$86,689,752	11.0
Miscellaneous expenses . . . . .	30,487,378	22,112,678	37.9
Cost of materials:			
Total . . . . .	\$286,255,303	\$176,551,527	62.1
Raw cotton:			
Domestic:			
Pounds . . . . .	1,832,736,744	1,761,798,458	4.0
Cost . . . . .	\$214,615,846	\$119,098,443	80.2
Foreign:			
Pounds . . . . .	43,700,406	55,844,932	21.7 <sup>1</sup>
Cost . . . . .	\$7,596,905	\$6,071,173	25.1
All other materials . . . . .	64,042,552	51,381,911	24.6
Value of products . . . . .	450,467,704	339,200,320	32.8
Machinery:			
Producing spindles . . . . .	23,262,643 <sup>2</sup>	19,050,952	22.1
Looms . . . . .	559,261	455,752	22.7

<sup>1</sup> Decrease.<sup>2</sup> Does not include 517,620 cotton spindles reported by cordage, hosiery, woolen, and other mills making a total of 23,780,263 producing spindles, exclusive of spindles in mills which were idle the entire year.

FLAX, HEMP, AND JUTE PRODUCTS

(*Embraces cordage and twine, jute and jute goods, and linen goods.*)

The principal products of the industry as reported at the Census of 1905, are cordage and twine, \$48,017,139; jute and jute goods, \$9,065,802; and linen goods, \$5,856,388.

	1905.	1900.	Per cent of Increase.
Number of establishments . . . .	133	141	5.7 <sup>1</sup>
Capital . . . . .	\$54,405,531	\$41,991,762	29.6
Salaried officials, clerks, etc.:			
Number . . . . .	992	641	54.8
Salaries . . . . .	\$1,494,732	\$957,190	56.2
Wage-earners:			
Average number . . . . .	24,504	20,903	17.2
Wages . . . . .	\$8,580,585	\$6,331,741	35.5
Miscellaneous expenses . . . . .	3,683,108	2,678,286	37.5
Cost of materials . . . . .	44,890,546	32,197,885	39.4
Value of products <sup>2</sup> . . . . .	62,939,329	47,601,607	32.2

<sup>1</sup> Decrease.<sup>2</sup> Does not include \$606,750 flax, hemp, and jute by-products in 1905 and \$2,279,568 in 1900, manufactured by agricultural implement, ammunition, bag, and paper and pulp manufacturers.

## SILK AND SILK GOODS.

	1905.	1900.	Per cent of Increase.
Number of establishments....	624	483	29.2
Capital .....	\$109,556,621	\$81,082,201	35.1
Salaried officials, clerks, etc.:			
Number.....	4,027	2,657	51.6
Salaries .....	\$4,742,270	\$3,134,352	51.3
Wage-earners:			
Average number.....	79,600	65,416	21.7
Wages.....	\$26,767,943	\$20,982,194	27.6
Miscellaneous expenses.....	14,052,777	10,264,208	36.9
Cost of materials:			
Total .....	75,861,188	62,406,665	21.6
Raw silk:			
Pounds .....	12,086,583	9,760,770	23.8
Cost .....	\$45,318,416	\$40,721,877	11.3
All other materials.....	30,542,772	21,684,788	40.8
Raw silk thrown under con-			
tract:			
Organzine (pounds).....	3,635,384	2,331,456	55.9
Tram (pounds) .....	3,466,467	1,967,203	76.2
Value of products, including			
amount received for con-			
tract work.....	\$133,288,072	\$107,256,258	24.3
Machinery:			
Spindles .....	2,453,588	1,987,404	23.5
Power looms .....	59,775	44,257	35.1

DECISIONS OF THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT ON  
THE WOOLEN TARIFF.

(T.D. 26187 — G.A. 5978.)

*Measurement of rugs — Selvage included.*

In taking the measurement of rugs with selvages provided for in paragraph 379, act of 1897, the selvage of the articles should be included in the dutiable area. — *Fritz v. United States and Sloane v. United States*, not yet officially reported (T.D. 25878), affirming *In re Sloane* (G.A. 5711) and *In re Vantine & Co.* (G.A. 5062) followed.

UNITED STATES GENERAL APPRAISERS,

New York, March 21, 1905.

The importations covered by these protests consist of oriental and other similar rugs, which were assessed for duty under paragraph 379 of the tariff act of July 24, 1897.

The objection taken to the collector's action is that, in making the measurement of the rugs upon which duty was assessed, he included not only the pile fabric portion, but also the selvage. The claim, in other words, is that in taking the measurement the selvage should have been excluded from the square-foot measure.

The issue raised is identical with that passed on by the Circuit Court for the southern district of New York in *Fritz v. United States and Sloane v. United States* (reported in T.D. 25878), where it was held that the duty of 10 cents per square foot provided for on rugs in said paragraph 379 should be based on the entire area of the rugs including the selvage. This ruling affirmed the Board's decision *In re Sloane*, G.A. 5711 (T.D. 25384), and also *In re Vantine & Co.*, G.A. 5062 (T.D. 23470).

Following these decisions, the protests are all overruled and the decisions of the collector affirmed.

(T.D. 26323.)

*Drawback on knit underwear.*

Drawback rate on knit underwear manufactured by the Wright's Health Underwear Company, of Troy, N.Y., with the use of imported wool thread waste.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, April 27, 1905.

SIR: On the exportation of knit underwear manufactured by the Wright's Health Underwear Company, of Troy, N.Y., with the use of imported wool thread waste in combination with cotton, a drawback will be allowed equal in amount to the duty paid on the imported material so used, less the legal deduction of 1 per cent.

The preliminary entry must show the marks and numbers of the shipping packages, the gross and net weight of each package, together



with the number of each kind of garment of each size contained therein separately and in the aggregate.

Each shipping package must be marked, showing the gross and net weight thereof, and the number of garments of each kind and size contained therein.

The drawback entry must show the total number of garments of each kind and of each size, and the total net weight thereof exported, together with the percentage and quantity of imported wool thread waste consumed in the manufacture thereof. Said entry must further show, in addition to the usual averments, that the merchandise was manufactured of materials and in the manner set forth in the manufacturers' sworn statement, dated April 12, 1905, transmitted herewith for filing in your office.

In liquidation, the quantity of imported wool thread waste which may be taken as the basis for allowance of drawback may equal the percentage and quantity consumed as declared in the drawback entry, after official verification of exported quantities.

Samples may be taken or sworn samples furnished, as ordered by the collector, to be submitted to the appraiser for required determinations.

Respectfully,

JAMES B. REYNOLDS,

*Assistant Secretary.*

COLLECTOR OF CUSTOMS, *New York.*

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(T.D. 26394.)

*Woolen rags.*

UNITED STATES *v.* PEARSON.

U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals, Second Circuit. May 8, 1905. Suit 3024.

WOOLEN RAGS — WOOL WASTE. *Held* that certain clippings produced in the manufacture of woolen garments are dutiable under paragraph 363, tariff act of 1897, as "woolen rags," and not under paragraph 362, relating to wool waste.

APPEAL from the Circuit Court of the United States for the southern district of New York.

The decision below (131 Fed. Rep. 571; T.D. 25317) affirmed an unpublished decision of the Board of United States General Appraisers rendered October 10, 1899, which on the authority of *In re Kennedy*, G. A. 4555 (T.D. 21595), had reversed the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York on merchandise imported by Pearson & Emmott. Note *United States v. Cummings* (65 Fed. Rep. 495).

The articles in question were woolen clippings produced in the manufacture of garments. They were classified by the collector of customs under the provision in paragraph 362, tariff act of 1897, for "wastes composed wholly or in part of wool, not especially provided for," and

were claimed by the importers to be dutiable as "woolen rags" under paragraph 363. This contention was sustained both by the Board and the Circuit Court, in the decisions above cited.

*Henry A. Wise*, assistant United States attorney, for the United States.

*W. K. Griffin*, for the importers.

Before WALLACE, LACOMBE, and COXE, *circuit judges*: At the conclusion of the argument the Court affirmed the decision of the Circuit Court, without opinion.

(T.D. 26404.)

*Wool on mocha sheepskins.*

GOAT AND SHEEPSKIN IMPORT COMPANY *v.* UNITED STATES.

U.S. Circuit Court, Southern District of New York May 19, 1905.

Suit 3641.

WOOL ON THE SKIN — MOCHA SHEEPSKINS. As to skins of the so-called white-head mocha sheep, having a growth a certain percentage of which is wool of a low order, *Held* that duty should be assessed thereon as provided in paragraph 360, tariff act of 1897, relating to "wools on the skin."

ON application for review of a decision of the Board of United States General Appraisers.

The decision below, which affirmed the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York, reads as follows, Abstract 2401 (T.D. 25499):

MCCLELLAND, *General Appraiser*: The merchandise is skins of the mocha sheep returned by the appraiser for duty only on the basis of the wool found thereon. Said wool was assessed for duty by the collector as wool, Class 3, at 3 cents per pound, under the provisions of paragraphs 358 and 360 of the tariff act of 1897. Claims for free entry are made under the provisions of paragraphs 562, 571, and 664 of said act.

The testimony taken on the hearing before the Board on these protests shows that the question involved is the same as that settled in G.A. 4593 (T.D. 21737) and an unpublished decision dated January 31, 1900 (protests 48188 *f.* etc.), the latter of which was affirmed upon appeal by the United States Circuit Court for the southern district of New York, May 27, 1904, in the Abe Stein Company *v.* United States (no opinion filed).

On the hearing in G.A. 4593 (*supra*) there was evidence that the article found on this class of skins — whether called hair or wool — could be carded, and this is substantially confirmed by the testimony of the examiner (Kitching) in the case before us.

Following the rulings in the cases above cited and upon the authority of *Lyon et al. v. Marine* (55 Fed. Rep. 964), the protests are overruled and the decisions of the collector affirmed.

*Hatch, Keener & Clute* (*J. Stuart Tompkins* of counsel), for the importers.

*D. Frank Lloyd*, assistant United States attorney, for the United States.

*TOWNSEND, circuit judge:* The merchandise in controversy consists of mocha white-head sheepskins from which the coat had not been removed at the time of importation. They were assessed for duty at 3 cents per pound under the provisions of paragraphs 351, 358, and 360 of the act of 1897, as wools of the third class on the skin, and were claimed to be free under the provisions of paragraph 664 of said act as "skins of all kinds, raw (except sheepskins with the wool on)," etc. The sole question presented is whether these skins have wool on or hair only. The Board of General Appraisers reached the conclusion that a certain percentage of the covering was wool, and therefore that the skins were sheepskins with the wool on within the meaning of the tariff act. Inasmuch as there was sufficient evidence to support the finding of the Board as to the fact of wool upon the skins, and as the Court upon examination of the sample is unable to say that this finding is incorrect, and as the definitions in the encyclopedias and dictionaries support the claim that such a product is wool, although of a low order, the decision of the Board of General Appraisers is affirmed.

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(T.D. 26407.)

*Clippings of wool.*

Clippings of wool resulting from the manufacture of undergarments dutiable at 10 cents per pound as woolen rags, under paragraph 363, tariff act of 1897.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, May 27, 1905.

SIR: The department is in receipt of a report of the United States attorney for the southern district of New York, in which he states that the case of *United States v. Pearson & Emmott* (suit 3024) was recently decided in the United States Circuit Court of Appeals for the second circuit adversely to the Government.

The merchandise in suit consisted of clippings of wool resulting from the manufacture of undergarments. Duties were assessed thereon as wool waste at 20 cents per pound under paragraph 362 of the tariff act of July 24, 1897. The importers protested, claiming the merchandise to be dutiable under paragraph 363 at 10 cents per pound as woolen rags, which claim was sustained by the United States Circuit Court of Appeals in this case, affirming the United States Circuit Court below, without opinion.

The attorney-general advises the department that no further proceedings will be directed in the case. You are therefore hereby authorized to forward the usual certified statement for refund of the duties exacted in excess in settlement thereof.

Respectfully,

JAMES B. REYNOLDS,

*Acting Secretary.*

COLLECTOR OF CUSTOMS, *New York.*

(T.D. 26487.)

*Cabretta skins.*JOHNSON *v.* UNITED STATES.

U.S. Circuit Court, Southern District of New York. June 1, 1905.

Suit 3620.

**CABRETТА SKINS—SHEEPSKINS WITH THE WOOL ON.** In regard to certain skins of the cabretta, a hybrid resulting from a cross between a sheep and a goat, *Held* that they are "sheepskins" within the meaning of paragraph 664, tariff act of 1897, excluding from free entry "sheepskins with the wool on," and that the growth on such skins is properly subject to the duties provided in Schedule K of said act for wool on the skin.

ON application for review of a decision of the Board of United States General Appraisers.

The decision below affirmed the assessment of duty on importations by Lawrence, Johnson & Co., at the port of New York, which the importers contended should have been classified free under paragraph 664, tariff act of 1897, which reads:

Skins of all kinds, raw (except sheepskins with the wool on), and hides not especially provided for in this act.

The opinion filed by the Board is as follows (Abstract 1980—T.D. 25411):

**MCCLELLAND, general appraiser:** The question involved in these protests is whether duty was properly assessed on the wool on certain so-called cabretta sheepskins. The return of the appraiser shows the skins to have on them wool of the third class, and duty was assessed accordingly upon such wool at 3 cents per pound, under the provisions of paragraphs 358 and 360 of the act of July 24, 1897. The claim of the protestants is that there is not wool on the skins, and that therefore they are entitled to free entry under the provisions of paragraph 664 of said act.

Aside from the claim expressed in the protests, there is nothing in the record to disturb the finding of the appraiser, but, on the contrary, an examination of the samples admitted in evidence tends to sustain it. In an unpublished decision, dated March 8, 1899, the Board affirmed the action of the collector in assessing duty on the wool ascertained to be on similar cabretta skins, and, on an appeal being taken from said decision of the Board to the United States Circuit Court, and after considering evidence taken on reference in support of the appellants' contention, the Court affirmed the finding of the Board. *Lawrence, Johnson & Co. v. United States* (124 Fed Rep. 1000).

Following the said decision of the Court we overrule the protests and affirm the action of the collector in each case.

The opinion of the Court referred to above reads as follows:

**HAZEL, district judge:** The merchandise covered by the protest of the importers consists of skins, with the wool on, of the cabretta, a cross between a sheep and a goat. The admixture between the sheep and the goat results in the production of a hybrid that is neither the one nor the other. Some cabrettas have wool on their skins, and others, resembling the goat, have practically none, or only hair, like the goat, hence their skins can be utilized only as goatskins. It appears by the evidence that these skins, arriving from Brazil, are tied in bales,



each bale holding approximately 250 skins. The total number having wool on, in the shipment, is ascertained by an examination of a separated few in each bale, and then the number and their weight are averaged. Usually the percentage of wool-bearing skins in each bale is 40 to 50 per cent. No duty was assessed upon the raw skins, as such skins are admitted free under the tariff act of July 24, 1897, but the collector assessed duty upon the skins with the wool on at the rate of 3 cents per pound, holding such wool to be wool on a sheepskin. The protestants claim that as the animals from which the skins were taken were hybrids and were not skins of sheep the wool on skins is entitled to free entry. The ruling of the collector was sustained by the Board of General Appraisers without examining the skins or taking evidence of their character to support their finding. Evidence was then taken on reference preliminary to the review of the decision of the Board of General Appraisers by this Court. I have examined the proofs and am of the opinion that the collector was correct in assessing the cabretta skins with the wool on as sheepskins with the wool on. My reasons for that conclusion, briefly stated, are that the cabretta belongs not only to the specie of sheep, but is so closely related that it is difficult to distinguish the difference between the wool-bearing skins of the sheep and of the hybrid, except that the cabretta ordinarily has wool on the sides with hair or an admixture of wool and hair down the back. Moreover, the expert witness for the Government testified that cabretta skins with the wool on are also called sheepskins. The denominative exception in paragraph 664 is sufficiently broad, in my opinion, to include the cabretta skin with the wool on. It cannot reasonably be contended that importers of this class of merchandise did not clearly understand that the intent of Congress, at the time of the passage of the tariff act, was to assess a duty upon wool of the sheep and their species. The importers do not seriously claim that the cabretta, at the time of the passage of the tariff act, had a commercial designation which distinguished that animal from the sheep. In accordance with these views the classification of the skins with the wool on by the collector was right.

The decision of the Board of General Appraisers is approved.

*Walden & Webster* (Howard T. Walden of counsel), for the importers.

*D. Frank Lloyd*, assistant United States attorney, for the United States.

TOWNSEND, *circuit judge* (orally): This Court, in another case between these same parties (124 Fed. Rep. 1000), affirmed the decision of the Board of General Appraisers, holding that certain skins, known as cabretta skins, were properly classified for duty under paragraphs 358 and 360 of the act of 1897. I am constrained to follow the decision of Judge Hazel in the case referred to, and therefore the decision of the Board of General Appraisers is affirmed.

(T.D. 26519.)

*Paper waste containing wool.**In re DOWNING.*

U.S. Circuit Court, District of Massachusetts. Boston, June 14, 1905.  
No. 1468 (suit 1615).

PAPER WASTE IN PART OF WOOL — MILL SWEEPINGS. *Held* that certain mill sweepings, valued at 2.4 cents per pound, fit only for use as paper stock, and containing not more than 1 per cent of wool which cannot be separated, and which even if separated would not be of commercial value, are not dutiable under the provision in paragraph 362, tariff act of 1897, for "wastes composed . . . in part of wool," but are free of duty under paragraph 632, relating to "paper stock, . . . including all waste, . . . fit only to be converted into paper."

Full text not reported.

(T.D. 26538.)

*Embroidered dress patterns.*

Wool dress robes or dress patterns embroidered with silk, dutiable under paragraph 369, tariff act of 1897, as women's dress goods composed wholly or in part of wool.—  
T.D. 25155.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, June 27, 1905.

SIR: Referring to the decision of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals for the third circuit, in suits 5 and 6, of *United States v. John Wanamaker* (T.D. 25155), involving the dutiable classification of embroidered wool dress patterns, imported under the act of July 24, 1897, and decided in the United States Circuit Court of Appeals for the third circuit, adversely to the Government, I have to inform you that no further proceedings will be directed in those cases, and that you are therefore hereby authorized to forward the usual certified statement for refund of the duties due the importer in settlement thereof.

Respectfully,

C. H. KEEP,  
*Acting Secretary.*

COLLECTOR OF CUSTOMS, Philadelphia, Pa.

#### ABSTRACTS OF OTHER BOARD CASES.

##### *Waterproof Cloth in part of wool.*

T.D. 26218, abstracts 5504, 5505, 5506, and 5507. — Protests of C. F. Levy Krogmann against the assessment of duty by the collector at New York, March 25, 1905.

Certain so-called weather-proof cloth, classified under paragraph 366, tariff act of 1897, relating to cloths in part of wool, was claimed to be dutiable under paragraph 337, relating to waterproof cloth composed of cotton or other vegetable fiber. Protest overruled.

T.D. 26338, abstract 6249; T.D. 26377, abstract 6500; T.D. 26516, abstract 7020; T.D. 26615, abstracts 7485 and 7494. — Protests of various parties, April 25, May 10, June 13,

July 22, and July 24, 1905. Sustained on authority of *United States v. Brown*, T.D. 26124.

T.D. 26462, Suits 2250, 2253, 2256, 2257, 2260, 2406. — Decisions rendered July 16, 1895, and May 5, 1896. Reversed without argument or opinion on authority of *United States v. Brown*, T.D. 26124.

T.D. 26866, abstract 9010. Protest of G. W. Shelden & Co., Nov. 15, 1905. Classified as woolen cloth under paragraph 366, act of 1897. Assessment affirmed.

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(T.D. 26035.)

**No. 4605.** — HAIR PRESS CLOTH. — Protests of E. & W. H. Caldwell against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York, January 31, 1905.

The merchandise consisted of cloth made from camel and goat hair, used in presses for the manufacture of stearin, and otherwise. It was classified as woolen cloth under paragraph 366, tariff act of 1897, and is claimed to be dutiable under paragraph 431 as hair press cloth. Protests overruled on the authority of G.A. 4448 (T.D. 21200).

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(T.D. 26117.)

**No. 5093.** — MOHAIR RUGS. — Protest of John H. Pray & Sons. Co. against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of Boston, March 2, 1905.

The goods consisted of so-called mohair rugs, in which the face is separately woven and fastened to the back. The Board sustained the importers' contention that they should have been classified under the provision in paragraph 381, tariff act of 1897, for carpets or carpeting not specially provided for.

**No. 5094.** — WOOL CARPETS. — Protest of Marshall Field & Co. against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of Chicago, March 2, 1905.

The merchandise was classified under the provision in paragraph 379, tariff act of 1897, for carpets of every description woven whole for rooms, and Oriental, Berlin, Aubusson, Axminster, and similar rugs. The goods were described as Mahrud rugs, 9 by 12, 9 by 3, and 12 by 39, those 9 by 12 being woven in four strips, requiring only the sewing to make a complete pattern. The Board held that, with the exception of these strips, there could be no question that the merchandise was similar to that enumerated in said paragraph 379 and that it was properly classified; but as to the strips, that, in the condition imported, they are not rugs but carpeting similar to Axminster, and that they should have been classified under paragraph 372, as claimed by the importers.

**No. 5104.** — WOOL WEARING APPAREL — OPERA HATS. — Protest of Saks & Co. against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York, March 3, 1905.

Certain opera hats were held to have been properly classified under paragraph 370, tariff act of 1897, as wearing apparel in part of wool.

**No. 5109.** — COACHMEN'S BELTS — WOOL WEARING APPAREL. — Protest of Veil Brothers against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York, March 3, 1905.

Certain coachmen's belts, composed of wool, with metallic buckles and leather ends, were held to have been properly classified as wool wearing apparel under paragraph 370, tariff act of 1897.

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(T.D. 26218.)

**No. 5432.** — WEARING APPAREL IN CHIEF VALUE OF LEATHER AND IN PART OF WOOL. — Protests of Stern Brothers against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York, March 21, 1905.

The merchandise consisted of wearing apparel composed in chief value of leather and in part of wool, the wool constituting about 5 per cent of the value of the goods, classified as wearing apparel in part of wool under paragraph 370, tariff act of 1897, and claimed to be dutiable under paragraph 450 as manufactures in chief value of leather. Protests overruled on the authority of G.A. 4126 (T.D. 19249) and G.A. 5799 (T.D. 25629).

**No. 5508.** — COTTON CLOTH WITH WOOL POLKA DOTS. — Protest of S. Guggenheimer, Rosenberg & Co. against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York, March 25, 1905.

Protest overruled on the authority of G.A. 4676 (T.D. 22082) where cotton cloth with surface spots or polka dots of wool was held to be dutiable under paragraph 366, tariff act of 1897, as cloth in part of wool.

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(T.D. 26341.)

**Suits 3511, 3538, and 3618.** — MOHAIR BRAIDS. — Horstmann, Von Hein & Co. v. United States (3511), C. L. Woodbridge & Co. v. United States (3538), and Julius Loewenthal & Co. v. United States (3618). United States Circuit Court, southern district of New York, December 16, 1904. On application for review of decisions of the Board of General Appraisers. Before Platt, district judge.

Decisions *reversed*, without argument or opinion. Certain braids were held by the Board to be dutiable at the rates provided by the tariff act of 1890, by virtue of the provision in paragraph 297, tariff act of 1894, deferring until January 1, 1895, the operation of the latter act on manufactures of "wool." The evidence taken in the Circuit Court showed the goods to be composed of mohair and not sheep's wool, and they were, therefore, held to be dutiable under the act of 1894, as claimed by the importers. For decisions below see abstract 337 (T.D. 25000), abstract 406 (T.D. 25023), abstracts 893-4 (T.D. 25177), and abstract 1967 (T.D. 25411). No appeal. Note G.A. 4385 (T.D. 20849).



(T.D. 26377.)

**No. 6517.** — SELVAGE OF RUGS. — Protest of Marshall Field & Co. against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of Chicago, May 10, 1905.

Protest overruled on the authority of G.A. 5978 (T.D. 26187), holding that the selvage of rugs should be included in the dutiable area.

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(T.D. 26462.)

**Suit 3010.** — WOOLEN RAGS. — United States *v.* Kennedy & Moon. United States Circuit Court, southern district of New York, May 16, 1905. On application for review of a decision of the Board of United States General Appraisers. Before Townsend, circuit judge.

Decision *affirmed* without argument or opinion, on the authority of United States *v.* Pearson (T.D. 26394). For decision below see G.A. 4555 (T.D. 21595).

**Suit 3709.** — WOOLEN GOODS, ACT OF 1894. — Horstmann, Von Hein & Co. *v.* United States. United States Circuit Court, southern district of New York, May 18, 1905. On application for review of decisions of the Board of United States General Appraisers. Before Townsend, circuit judge.

Decisions *reversed*, without argument or opinion, certain goods classified as manufactures of wool under the tariff act of 1890 as prescribed in paragraph 297, tariff of 1894, being held to be dutiable at the rates provided in the latter act. For decisions below see abstracts 3038 and 3074 (T.D. 25665).

QUARTERLY REPORT OF THE BOSTON WOOL MARKET  
 FOR JANUARY, FEBRUARY, AND MARCH, 1906.

DOMESTIC WOOLS. (BENEDICT &amp; LIVINGSTONE.)

	1906.			1905.
	January.	February.	March.	March.
OHIO, PENNSYLVANIA, AND WEST VIRGINIA.				
(WASHED.)				
XX and above . . . . .	34 @ 35	34 @ 34½	34 @ 31½	34 @ 35
X . . . . .	33 @ 34	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	32
¾ Blood . . . . .	39 @ 40	38 @ 39	38 @ 40	36 @ 37
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	39 @ 40	38 @ 39	38 @ 39	36 @ 37
Fine Delaine . . . . .	36 @ 37	36 @ 37	36 @ 37	36 @ 37
(UNWASHED.)				
Fine . . . . .	26 @ 26½	25½ @ 26	25 @ 26	23 @ 24
¾ Blood . . . . .	33 @ 34	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	29
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	38 @ 34	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	30
Fine Delaine . . . . .	28 @ 29	28 @ 29	28 @ 29	26 @ 26½
MICHIGAN, WISCONSIN, NEW YORK, ETC.				
(WASHED.)				
Fine . . . . . (not quotable)				29 @ 30
¾ Blood . . . . .	38 @ 39	37 @ 38	37 @ 38	36
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	38 @ 39	37 @ 38	37 @ 38	36
Fine Delaine . . . . .	34 @ 35	34 @ 35	34 @ 35	35
(UNWASHED.)				
Fine . . . . .	24 @ 25	24 @ 25	24 @ 25	20 @ 21
¾ Blood . . . . .	31½ @ 32	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	28
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	31½ @ 32	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	29 @ 30
Fine Delaine . . . . .	27 @ 28	27 @ 28	27 @ 28	25
KENTUCKY AND INDIANA.				
(UNWASHED.)				
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	33 @ 34	32 @ 34	32 @ 34	30 @ 31
Braid . . . . .	28 @ 29	28 @ 29	28 @ 29	27
MISSOURI, IOWA, AND ILLINOIS.				
(UNWASHED.)				
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	29 @ 30
Braid . . . . .	27 @ 28	27 @ 28	27 @ 28	27
TEXAS.				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
Spring, fine, 12 months . . . . .	73 @ 74	72 @ 73	72 @ 73	63 @ 65
"    "    6 to 8 months . . . . .	68 @ 69	67 @ 68	67 @ 68	57 @ 58
"    medium, 12 months . . . . .	64 @ 66	63 @ 65	63 @ 65	57 @ 58
"    "    6 to 8 months . . . . .	62 @ 63	61 @ 63	61 @ 63	53 @ 54
Fall, fine . . . . .	62 @ 63	61 @ 63	61 @ 63	55 @ 56
"    medium . . . . .	59 @ 60	59 @ 60	59 @ 60	52 @ 53
CALIFORNIA.				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
Spring, Northern, free, 12 months . . . . .	71 @ 72	70 @ 72	70 @ 72	63 @ 66
"    "    "    6 to 8 months, . . . . .	66 @ 67	65 @ 66	65 @ 66	57 @ 58
Fall, free . . . . .	61 @ 62	60 @ 62	60 @ 62	54 @ 55
"    defective . . . . .	40 @ 45	40 @ 45	40 @ 45	42 @ 47
TERRITORY WOOL: Montana, Wyoming, Utah, Idaho, Oregon, etc.				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
Staple, fine and fine medium . . . . .	73 @ 75	72 @ 73	72 @ 73	67 @ 68
"    medium . . . . .	67 @ 70	65 @ 67	65 @ 67	60 @ 62
Clothing, fine . . . . .	70 @ 72	69 @ 70	69 @ 70	64 @ 65
"    medium . . . . .	68 @ 69	67 @ 68	67 @ 68	60 @ 61
"    medium . . . . .	64 @ 66	63 @ 64	63 @ 64	57 @ 58
NEW MEXICO. (Spring.)				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
No. 1 . . . . .	67 @ 69	65 @ 67	65 @ 67	61 @ 63
No. 2 . . . . .	63 @ 65	61 @ 63	61 @ 63	56 @ 57
No. 3 . . . . .	52 @ 54	50 @ 52	50 @ 52	50 @ 51
No. 4 . . . . .	43 @ 44	41 @ 43	41 @ 43	43 @ 44
NEW MEXICO. (Fall.)				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
No. 1 . . . . .	60 @ 62	59 @ 61	59 @ 61	58 @ 60
No. 2 . . . . .	57 @ 59	56 @ 58	56 @ 58	53 @ 54
No. 3 . . . . .	50 @ 52	49 @ 51	49 @ 51	47 @ 48
No. 4 . . . . .	46 @ 47	45 @ 46	45 @ 46	40 @ 41
GEORGIA AND SOUTHERN.				
Unwashed . . . . .	32 @ 33	31 @ 32	30 @ 32	30

## DOMESTIC WOOL.

BOSTON, March 31, 1906.

The year opened with a quiet trade, prices remaining fairly firm, however. The woolen mills, which had pursued a hand to mouth policy through the fall, were obliged to come into the market and the bulk of the early business was from this source, making a fair demand for clothing grades, both in the grease and scoured states.

As the heavy weight season progressed and orders for worsted fabrics proved fairly satisfactory, many of the large worsted mills were represented in the market, with the result that almost all of the desirable lines of medium bright wool (of which there was a large supply) were cleaned up, but at prices which showed no profit to the owners.

Staple territory stock has sold readily and at full quotations. In general, territory wools are in light supply and selections poor; therefore manufacturers who have sufficient stock on hand for their immediate wants are now waiting to see how the country markets open, before making further heavy purchases. On the other hand, dealers have their stock so well in hand that they are not concerned about any dullness that may prevail between now and clip time.

The country markets are sure to open high and the general impression prevails that it will be impossible to replace wools at the prices at which they are now selling in this market.

Contracting has been carried on to a limited extent in the territories, but the exalted ideas of growers preclude the possibility of any general movement in this direction.

BENEDICT &amp; LIVINGSTONE.

PULLED WOOLS. (*Scoured basis.*) (W. A. BLANCHARD.)

	1906.			1905.
	January.	February.	March.	March.
Brushed, Extra . . . . .	70 @ 75	70 @ 75	70 @ 75	64 @ 66
Fine A . . . . .	65 @ 68	65 @ 68	65 @ 68	59 @ 61
A Super . . . . .	58 @ 63	58 @ 63	58 @ 63	56 @ 58
B Super . . . . .	52 @ 54	50 @ 54	50 @ 54	50 @ 52
C Super . . . . .	40 @ 44	40 @ 43	40 @ 43	42 @ 45
Fine Combing . . . . .	62 @ 65	62 @ 65	62 @ 65	57 @ 58
Combing . . . . .	50 @ 53	50 @ 52	50 @ 52	50 @ 53
California, Extra . . . . .	68 @ 70	68 @ 70	68 @ 70	62 @ 64

## REMARKS.

The quarter under consideration shows no change from the conditions which obtained during the previous term, and the relative place of pulled wool in the market has been secondary. The demand for fine and medium supers has been sufficient to maintain the former level of prices; but the lower grades, such as coarse combings, C supers, and also gray wools, have

been so slow of sale that no accurate valuations can be quoted for them. The continued use of substitutes in the manufacture of cheap woollens is mainly responsible for this condition of things.

Wools running to staple and grading three-eighths and above have sold freely, and there has been a fair business done in the ordinary quarter-blood combings. The worsted spinners have also bought a fair proportion of the longer B supers, and this movement has materially helped in preventing an accumulation of this grade of wool. Some western B's have been sold as low as 48 cents, though standard eastern pullings have ranged from 52 to 55 cents, — the outside price for strictly white stock

W. A. BLANCHARD.

FOREIGN WOOLS. (MAUGER & AVERY.)

	1906.			1905.
	January.	February.	March.	March.
<b>Australian Combing:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	42 @ 43	42 @ 43	42 @ 43	43 @ 45
Good . . . . .	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	40 @ 42
Average . . . . .	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	39 @ 40
<b>Australian Clothing:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	41 @ 43	42 @ 44	43 @ 44	43 @ 44
Good . . . . .	40 @ 41	40 @ 42	40 @ 42	41 @ 43
Average . . . . .	37 @ 39	38 @ 40	38 @ 41	39 @ 40
<b>Sydney and Queensland:</b>				
Good Clothing . . . . .	38 @ 40	39 @ 42	40 @ 42	39 @ 43
Good Combing . . . . .	38 @ 40	40 @ 42	40 @ 42	40 @ 43
<b>Australian Crossbred:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	44 @ 46	45 @ 47	45 @ 48	38 @ 40
Average . . . . .	40 @ 42	42 @ 44	42 @ 44	35 @ 36
<b>Australian Lambs:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	43 @ 47	45 @ 48	45 @ 48	42 @ 45
Good . . . . .	40 @ 41	40 @ 42	41 @ 43	39 @ 40
Good Defective . . . . .	35 @ 37	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	32 @ 34
<b>Cape of Good Hope:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	35 @ 37	35 @ 37	35 @ 37	34 @ 36
Average . . . . .	31 @ 33	31 @ 33	31 @ 33	31 @ 33
<b>Montevideo:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	35 @ 37	35 @ 37	35 @ 37	35 @ 37
Average . . . . .	33 @ 35	33 @ 35	33 @ 35	32 @ 34
Crossbred, Choice . . . . .	39 @ 40	39 @ 41	40 @ 41	34 @ 36
<b>English Wools:</b>				
Sussex Fleece . . . . .	42 @ 43	43 @ 44	44 @ 45	38 @ 40
Shropshire Hogs . . . . .	41 @ 43	42 @ 43	43 @ 44	38 @ 40
Yorkshire Hogs . . . . .	40 @ 41	40 @ 42	42 @ 43	35 @ 37
Irish Selected Fleece . . . . .	41 @ 43	42 @ 44	43 @ 44	36 @ 37
<b>Carpet Wools:</b>				
Scotch Highland, White . . . . .	23 @ 24	24 @ 25	24 @ 25	22 @ 23
East India, 1st White Joria . . . . .	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	33 @ 34	35 @ 36
East India, White Kandahar . . . . .	26 @ 28	26 @ 28	27 @ 29	27 @ 29
Donskoi, Washed, White . . . . .	31 @ 32	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	29 @ 30
Aleppo, White . . . . .	32 @ 33	33 @ 34	33 @ 34	23 @ 25
China Ball, White . . . . .	23 @ 24	23 @ 25	23 @ 25	23 @ 24
“ “ No. 1, Open . . . . .	20 @ 21	20 @ 21	20 @ 22	20 @ 21
“ “ No. 2, Open . . . . .	14 @ 15	15 @ 16	15 @ 16	12 @ 15

FOREIGN WOOLS.

The quarter ending with March was a fairly active one in the market for foreign wools. Dealers who had been carrying merino wools continued to urge sale wherever opportunity offered, and the bulk of the holdings were



moved to manufacturers at values considerably below what such wools were costing to import.

Crossbreds met with a steady demand as fast as they were received from Australia and South America, and in some cases large transactions were made to arrive. The wools proved to be in very good condition and netted the importers a fair profit. It is not possible to estimate the volume of sales, but it is safe to estimate that three-fourths of the arrivals were disposed of soon after coming into store.

The demand for these wools encouraged dealers to operate in the London markets, and many of the wools sold were replaced at higher cost than the original lots had realized here. By the influence of the strong market abroad and steady advancing values there, prices here were affected, and an advance was obtained from month to month on most descriptions of crossbred wool.

Cape of Good Hope wools have been in moderate supply, but ample for the demand, as their relative high cost prevents their use except for special purposes.

The advance in London created a demand for English wools, and stocks here were practically cleaned out at a little under cost of importation.

The greatest activity the past three months has been in carpet wools, which have been bought steadily by manufacturers in face of advancing prices. As an evidence of the lessening supply of third class wools we copy the following from the "Monthly Summary of Commerce & Finance":

*Importations of Third Class Wool for Month of February.*

1905.	1906.
12,391,450 lbs.	6,521,328 lbs.

*For Eight Months Ending February.*

1904.	1905.	1906.
76,911,000 lbs.	73,784,000 lbs.	67,404,000 lbs.

It is thus seen that the importations for the month of February are six million pounds behind those of 1905, and for the eight months ending February, 1905, were three million pounds behind 1904, while those for 1906 were six million pounds behind 1905.

*Amount of Wool Remaining in Bond for February.*

1905.	1906.
24,154,000 lbs.	18,806,000 lbs.

The world appears to have absorbed all its surplus of low wools, and reports of markets on the other side do not encourage hope that values will be lower; but it may be well to consider that a large proportion of Asia, and part of Russia, have been under lawless conditions, and it is possible that considerable third class wool has been prevented from reaching the world's markets.

Still, making all allowances, we incline to the opinion that with normal conditions prevailing it will be a year or two before low wools decline to any extent.

MAUGER & AVERY.

Boston, April 3, 1906.

# BULLETIN

OF THE

## National Association of Wool Manufacturers.

A QUARTERLY MAGAZINE

DEVOTED TO THE INTERESTS OF THE NATIONAL WOOL INDUSTRY.

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[No. III.

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### PROPOSED CHANGES IN THE CUSTOMS ADMINISTRATIVE LAW.

DURING the session of Congress recently closed, a determined and spirited attack was made by foreign foes and domestic enemies of the country's tariff policy upon the customs administrative law. The two forces worked in complete harmony — the one striving to arouse and direct public opinion in opposition to the law, the other to influence official action, and both to compel such liberalization in the act as would endanger many domestic interests. The attack on the part of the domestic enemies was conducted under the direction of the Committee on Customs Service and Revenue Laws of the Merchants' Association of New York.

Interest was somewhat aroused in the question of alterations in the law by the report of this committee issued January last. That report, printed in this issue of the Bulletin on page 243, urged many changes — some reasonable and desirable, but others revolutionizing present practice, inimical to the enforcement of the tariff law, and altogether impracticable. It formed the basis for testing public opinion and was understood to represent the desires of those urging changes.

The attack on the part of foreign foes came from the German Government, whose officials presented the vigorous pro-

test of German consigning merchants against what they deemed the inequalities and hardships of the law. Their purpose was to secure the adoption by Congress of modifications of our present fairly efficient law, or changes by executive order in the regulations, the effect of which would make it easier and less dangerous for importers by consignment to evade the payment of duties prescribed in the Dingley act. Though the attack failed in part, the same parties are undoubtedly awaiting a more favorable opportunity to return to demands not granted but regarded as of immense importance to the consignee importing classes. They have been temporarily abandoned only to be presented at a more propitious time to Congress, the sound sense of whose members has for the past fifteen years refused all requests to render less efficient those laws necessary alike for the protection of the nation's revenue and its domestic industries.

#### WHAT GAVE THE OPPORTUNITY FOR THE ATTACK.

The complication with Germany over the application to American products of the maximum duties of her new tariff afforded the opportunity for these two interests to combine forces and make a demonstration of considerable strength, which secured certain results. It was pretty generally understood to be impossible to negotiate and have ratified a commercial treaty with Germany; and to obviate the application of the maximum duties, concessions were sought for German commercial interests by the relaxing of certain features of the administrative customs law in return for the postponement of the application of those duties on March 1, 1906.

The President, interested in maintaining the present relations existing between the two countries and in averting a threatened tariff war, took the unusual course of calling a conference at the White House on the law in question, seeking thereby justification for proposed changes in the regulations governing hearings in appraisements of imported merchandise, and affording Germany an opportunity to effect an honorable retreat from her threatened hostile action. At

this conference arguments in favor of the modification of the regulations were made by the representatives of some New York importers and against it by the Secretary of the Treasury. So strong was the presentation of the case by the latter that the President, acknowledging his hope that the conference would enable him to order open hearings, felt constrained not to make the proposed change, thereby conceding the soundness of Secretary Shaw's opposition.

#### A FORMER COMMITTEE HAD ACTED.

As long ago as 1899 a general committee on the revision of the customs administrative law was appointed by the Merchants' Association at the suggestion of President McKinley, to indicate such changes or amendments as they might deem wise for the "better protection of the Government, the domestic manufacturer, and the honest importer alike." This general committee, composed of some forty-six members, representing various industries and interests, delegated its powers to an executive body of six who prepared a report, which was approved by the general committee, transmitted to President McKinley under date of March 1, 1900, and filed by him.

From that date until January, 1906, no apparent effort was made to have the recommendations therein embodied enacted into law, although a second committee had been appointed some time in the interim to make further investigation of the matter. It is a significant fact that after a six-year period of incubation the second report, making much the same recommendations as the first, should have been hatched at the very time Germany was pushing her claim for more considerate treatment.

Why, if conditions were intolerable, as declared by the committee's counsel, was the report allowed to lie dormant for a half dozen years to be revived at that particular time? What changes were made in the last report, and we are told by the secretary of the committee that they were few and unimportant, that it required so long a time to crystallize the conclusions of the new committee? What was it that



galvanized this moribund committee into life and activity unless it was that the time when Germany was supposed to be about to enforce her maximum tariff rates against our producers — something she was loth to do, which she could not afford to do, and which she was glad to find a pretext for not doing — seemed auspicious to strike for greater privileges for the consignees of undervalued goods? Many facts are in evidence to show that the time was purposely chosen and the coincidence was not accidental.

#### FALSE IMPRESSIONS CREATED.

This second report prepared by a new committee was transmitted to the Secretary of the Treasury, with the full list of the members of the General Committee of 1900 printed therein, with the apparent intention of creating the impression that the report was endorsed by it as well as by the Merchants' Association. The old committee was never notified of the second report, never considered it, and never held a meeting to pass upon it; and it is difficult to understand why their names should have been attached to this revised report, if it was not to give it an authority unwarranted and undeserved. In justification of the printing of the names of the committee of 1900 it has been said that the recent report nowhere states that the old committee was responsible for the revision! If they were not, why then were their names displayed in large type in the first pages of the pamphlet?

At least five members of the original committee were dead: John Field, John Gibb, Alfred Ray, James Renfrew, and John Sloane. The firm with which Mr. Gibb was connected opposed one of the committee's most important recommendations, and Mr. Pirie, of Carson, Pirie, Scott & Co., whose name was printed as one of the committee, declared such use unauthorized and announced his opposition to some of the proposed changes. The name of the Hon. S. N. D. North was printed as a member of the committee (representing the National Association of Wool Manufacturers) although he never met with that body. He did write in

approval of some of the recommendations in the original report, but distinctly put himself on record as opposed to others. In this second report his name still appears in the same representative capacity, though for nearly three years he had been the Director of the United States Census. By such use of names a false impression, whether intended or not, was created in the mind of every person into whose hands the pamphlet fell, though one dislikes to believe that a committee representing such a body as the Merchants' Association would deliberately attempt deception. The inevitable conclusion of such persons was that the report was prepared by the committee and that the whole report was approved by them all, and by the Association itself, a conclusion unwarranted by the facts. The editor of "The Buyer, American and Foreign" was one who so understood it. In his February issue he said, "The general committee under whose auspices the report has been drawn and made up consists of the following representative merchants in various lines," and the names of the committee follow.

Even such a statement concerning the report to President McKinley would hardly be justified. The Hon. J. Van Vechten Olcott, of New York City, in addressing the Ways and Means Committee, declared that the sub-committee which prepared the report "received letters from almost all of them" (the general committee) "approving of the report, or at any rate they all acquiesced in the report." This scarcely squares with the confession of Mr. George W. J. Angell, secretary of the committee, who in a letter to Mr. William Whitman under date of February 15, 1906, acknowledged that the report was actually approved by the affirmative votes of but twenty-four of the forty-six members of the committee, one of whom has since reversed his position, and the firm of the deceased chairman of the committee opposes at least one of its important recommendations. Nor did they all acquiesce in the report, for the secretary of this Association emphatically dissented from some of the changes suggested. It seems plain from such opposite statements by friends of the committee that no great care was taken to be

accurate. The motive for such conflicting declarations we leave for explanation by them; we shall not attempt to reconcile or explain them.

#### ONLY A HALF TRUTH TOLD TO PRESIDENT MCKINLEY.

In the letter of transmittal to President McKinley only a half truth was stated when he was informed that "the accompanying suggestions have been formally approved by the general committee." The names of the committee were attached, but the very important fact that only a bare majority actually approved the report — the others not showing sufficient interest to either vote, or reply to the notice of the meeting — was suppressed, and he was kept in ignorance of the meager margin by which the committee's approval was registered. There is not a word in either report to disclose this condition, which destroys the effect of unanimity produced by the appearance of the forty-six names. It is to be deeply regretted that such concealment was resorted to by the sub-committee, which seemed more bent on securing credit for representing an honorable association than it was on giving square treatment to either the general committee or the members of the association.

#### VALUE FOR EXPORT URGED AS THE STANDARD.

The report of the Merchants' Association Committee contained at least two recommendations which are regarded as steps backward: the one requiring invoices of goods obtained in any other manner than by purchase to contain the actual market value or wholesale price thereof "for exportation" at the time of exportation to the United States, and the other relating to open hearings in re-appraisement cases.

Market value in foreign markets is often times nebulous and elusive at best, but the value "for exportation" is practically non-existent. This provision would have thrown wide open the doors for all kinds of "dumping" and would have flooded our markets with Europe's surplus stocks. With that rule in force purchasers of large quantities would have been given distinct advantage over those of smaller

quantities. Under the present law they may be able to buy more advantageously, but when their merchandise passes the Custom House they pay the same rate of duty as do their less wealthy competitors. They may be able to buy at lower rates, but all now stand equal before the customs law when seeking entrance for their goods into the country. In the opinion of the counsel for the committee this change in the ascertainment of value was "more important to merchants in this country than all other questions arising under those laws combined, and most important of all for your committee to take and maintain a firm stand on. I think it would be better, if it were necessary, which I cannot assume it to be, for your committee to let every other proposed amendment go by the board than to weaken in your advocacy of this particular one." He regarded it as "the one imperative duty of importers in the United States and of any association, which claims or seeks to represent and safeguard their interests, to procure prompt legislative relief from these intolerable conditions." But the committee, finding too much opposition to this radical alteration, did weaken in their advocacy of it and, "as a matter of policy," it did not appear in the Olcott bill, which, though not covering all the features of their report, represented the minimum of their demands. For expediency's sake the recommendation was withdrawn, though the committee was still very strongly of the opinion that it was desirable.

#### OPEN HEARINGS AND PRODUCTION OF PAPERS FAVORED.

The second amendment provided by law for open hearings in re-appraisement cases and the production of all documentary evidence, submitted on behalf of the Government, for inspection of the importer and his counsel. At present the manner of conducting such re-appraisements is governed by the departmental regulations, which are subject to change by the order of the President or the Secretary of the Treasury.

At first blush this demand that the importer shall have the privilege of confronting the opposing witnesses and subjecting them to cross-examination seems eminently fair and



in keeping with litigants' rights. Secretary Shaw confessed that at the threshold of his official experience the cry caught his ear, but that within thirty days his views completely changed. He said :

Within the first two or three weeks after I took my seat as Secretary of the Treasury, when these matters were presented to me my sense of justice, if you please, or want of apprehension, led me to say yes to the proposition that these hearings should be open. It seemed to me to be fair ; but no man will sit in my chair for thirty days and give any attention to customs matters without learning that it is absolutely impracticable and well nigh impossible to conduct this business in that way. We might as well abolish our foreign force as to undertake to give open hearings.

Strong objection was made to what were designated as "star chamber proceedings," and depriving a man of his property without a trial. Those taking that view lost sight of the fact that the proceeding is not judicial in character, where the appraising officers sit as judges and render decisions according to the preponderance of testimony produced, but simply an appraisement — an ascertainment of value — like unto that of an assessment of real estate for taxation. In most States the valuation is fixed by the assessor from whose opinion an appeal may be taken to a board of commissioners whose decision is final. The owner of the real estate is not heard in the first instance and he has no opportunity to present witnesses or cross-examine the assessor either then or on the appeal. This summary method is adopted because otherwise it would be impossible for taxes to be laid and collected within a reasonable time.

A similar necessity requires somewhat similar proceedings in appraisement and re-appraisement cases, with this important difference : that the importer has the right of appeal from the appraiser to one general appraiser and from his decision to a board of three general appraisers, in each appeal being accorded the privilege of appearing himself and producing witnesses. General Appraiser De Vries says : "I think it would be found, if you compare this method of pro-

cedure for the collection of revenues and support of the Government with the laws of any State in the Union or with the procedure in any nation, that there are greater opportunities afforded for the purposes of determining the taxable value of property under this system than under any other." Under the regulations the general appraisers, it is true, are not obliged to hear witnesses for the protestant, but they uniformly do so, though they can act without hearing their views.

#### NOT A NEW DEMAND.

This demand for publicity is not a recent one. Twenty years ago Secretary Manning considered the question and concluded that it could not be granted. He then said :

It would be impracticable for the Executive to carry on reappraisements of the value of imported merchandise by the forms and methods of a law suit, as those forms and methods are employed in judicial proceedings. In what relates to the commercial designation of imported articles, their classification for duty, and the rates of duties to be levied thereon, the importer has ample recourse to the judicial tribunals, but the ascertainment of dutiable values has, by the law, been wisely made purely an executive function, involving, it is true, the exercise of discretion and judgment, but not on that account a judicial function in the sense in which the Federal Constitution has distributed powers among Executive, Legislative and Judicial Departments.

In reference to the inadvisability of holding open hearings the United States Supreme Court has expressed its opinion, saying :

We are of the opinion that under the statute the question of dutiable value of merchandise is not to be tried before the appraisers as if it were an issue in a judicial tribunal. Such is not the intention of the statute, and the practice has been to the contrary from the earliest history of the Government. No government could collect its revenues or perform its necessary functions if the system contended for by the plaintiffs were to prevail.

The appraising officers are entitled to all information obtainable concerning the foreign market value of goods under consideration, but such information is not public prop-

erty. It is due to merchants and others, called to give such information, that their statements shall be taken in the presence of official persons only. It must often occur that persons in possession of facts which would be of value to the appraisers in determining market values are deterred from appearing or testifying by the publicity given to re-appraisement proceedings.

Not only do the Treasury officials and the Supreme Court regard as impracticable the demand for public hearings, the submission of all documents, and the right to cross-examine opposing witnesses, but some of the most prominent importing merchants of the country, firms of such excellent standing as Marshall Field & Co., Carson, Pirie, Scott & Co., Lord & Taylor, Arnold, Constable & Co., and others are not only satisfied with the present "star chamber proceedings," but they urgently protest against the proposed change. They have no more fear of the penalties of the customs laws than they have of the penalties against arson and murder. This sense of security and satisfaction is sustained by the general appraisers, who aver that they cannot recall an instance of an honest man having been penalized under the system attacked.

#### OPEN HEARINGS WOULD MEAN INCREASED DIFFICULTIES.

The granting of open hearings in all re-appraisement cases was opposed by the Secretary of the Treasury and the general appraisers who appeared before the Ways and Means Committee. The Secretary, who knows that all the information obtained abroad is of a strictly confidential character, declared that the usefulness of the foreign force would be gone, and it would have to be abandoned, were the amendment adopted. Even at present it is difficult enough for that arm of our service to secure foreign market values,<sup>1</sup> and that important source of information would be closed to our appraisers, thereby intensifying the difficulty of the task, if not making it insurmountable. Open hearings would not only restrict the information from abroad, but they would

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<sup>1</sup> See p. 263 for testimony of Thomas H. Downing on this point.

make it well nigh impossible to secure domestic witnesses for the Government's case. There would be an instinctive reluctance, if not positive refusal, on the part of many to subject themselves to the badgering cross-examination of a customs attorney; others would be unwilling to lay bare to competitors their business connections and business secrets. This reluctance would not arise from any fear to meet the importer face to face, nor because the testimony offered would not be true to the best of the witness's belief, but from a shrinking at being considered and taunted as an informer. This method of secret hearings has been in vogue for years; on the whole it has worked well, with no more instances of the miscarriage of justice than are encountered in the findings of juries in courts, and the reflections cast upon the Government's witnesses in the committee's report are not merited. The hardships suffered by the importers under the present system are in nowise to be compared with the disadvantages under which the Government would labor were the new order established. Publicity in these hearings means inefficiency and paralysis of that branch of the Treasury service, a wanton disregard for our customs laws, and increased undervaluations.

#### CHANGES WOULD BENEFIT IMPORTERS ON CONSIGNMENT.

Secretary Shaw ventured the opinion that two-thirds of the New York merchants asking for the changes are engaged in importing merchandise which can only be bought in New York, duty paid. When it is remembered that consigned merchandise is the bane of the import business; that seven thousand applications for re-appraisement were listed in New York last year, 90 per cent of which were consignment cases; that the vast majority of those clamoring for freer conditions import their goods in that manner; and that many of the largest and most reputable of the country's firms are unalterably opposed to the changes asked, it seems somewhat peculiar to be told by the counsel for the committee of the Merchants' Association that the present method is a hardship on merchants having branches abroad,



and by the committee's chairman that the "association's only idea is to give the honest importer a chance, that the dishonest importers and the systematic undervaluers will have a great dread of facing their accusers openly, and that this will place them at a decided disadvantage."

The interests of the purchasing importers, who vigorously oppose the open hearing, and the consignee importers, who favor it, are diametrically opposed; and we find it difficult to believe that the latter, many of whom are the undervaluers and opponents of the present system, are altruistic enough to be now advocating measures which would not, in their opinion, be to their great advantage. Both the chairman of the association's committee and its counsel regard the recommendations of the report as of great moment to importers. These same recommendations are opposed by those importers whose business it is to purchase merchandise in foreign markets; and the unavoidable conclusion is that the importers by consignment are the only ones to whom the change would be of value.

In view of the action of the committee and the expressions of its chairman and counsel, can they pretend to say that the mandate of President McKinley under which they claim to have acted, was faithfully followed? Their work has been performed—if we may judge from the items of the report which they emphasized—with a total disregard of the interests of the three classes for which the revision was undertaken, and with an eye single to the advantages of the consignee class who have been chafing under the reasonable restraints and requirements of the act of 1890, as amended by the act of 1897—which have somewhat restricted the opportunities for gross undervaluation—and have been longing for a return to the wider field for operations permitted under less stringent regulations. The interests of the purchasing importers and the domestic manufacturers were dropped completely from the committee's consideration; those of the consignee importers became paramount.

Are we not justified in believing that conditions would be "intolerable" rather with open hearings than as at present

conducted? Is there not more warrant for believing in the sound judgment of those to whose care the application and enforcement of the law is committed — the general appraisers, the Secretary of the Treasury, and his predecessors for years without exception, no matter of what party, the United States Supreme Court, and the purchasing importers — than in accepting the representations and predictions of gentlemen whose interests are not at one with those of the Government, the honest importer, or the domestic manufacturer? Our experience prior to 1890 — when there was not that privacy now secured, and when re-appraisements were treated as in the nature of a trial in a court of law — showed what undesirable results flowed from such publicity, and ought to teach us to fear equally bad conditions, were the right to public hearings written in the statute or authorized without limitation, by the regulations.

We believe these two changes urged by the committee would tend to reproduce the demoralization which existed under the law prior to 1890, intensify the vicious practices then prevailing, deprive the Government of just revenues, and undo the measure of reform accomplished after years of endeavor.

#### FIVE PER CENT MARGIN FOR UNDERVALUATION SUGGESTED.

Another recommendation of importance was the one permitting a variation of 5 per cent in the market value before the penalty is applied. For more than forty years the question of what margin should be allowed, if any, has been a puzzling one, and it may be worth while to take a survey of the conditions which existed at various decades within that period, to consider the provisions intended to hamper or prevent undervaluations contained in the several laws in force in the past two decades, and note those adopted to prevent the continuance of practices which were driving honest importers out of business and reaping rich rewards for those guilty of them.

Prior to 1890 the law permitted an undervaluation of 10

per cent and provided for the collection of a duty of 20 per cent ad valorem in case the appraised value exceeded the 10 per cent.

Dr. John L. Hayes, referring to his observations as a member of the tariff commission of 1882, said that "a most earnest consideration of this subject has convinced me of the utter inadequacy of the existing laws to prevent this evil." At the port of New York the practice of undervaluation on consigned merchandise was rampant, all such importations being uniformly undervalued. The Boston committee of merchants and manufacturers reported in 1886: "Under this statute no penalty is imposed unless the appraised value exceeds the entered value 10 per cent or more. This is a practical encouragement by law of a general system of undervaluation within the range of 10 per cent, and an inducement to unscrupulous importers to make their entries as nearly as they regard safe within the limit."

Notwithstanding the reprehensible system which flourished under the liberty permitted by that law and the strong efforts made to secure amendments lessening the opportunity for it, when the administrative customs law of 1890, which created the Board of General Appraisers, was enacted, the same limit of 10 per cent for undervaluations was permitted, but the penalty for such undervaluation was increased, being made 2 per cent of the total appraised value for each 1 per cent that such appraised value exceeded the value declared in the entry. Hopes were raised, as expressed in this Bulletin, that the greater penalty and other provisions would give relief from the many grievances "suffered in the way of undervaluation, false invoices, and the like, under the existing law." These were not realized; the undervaluer still plied his business fearlessly and freely. The margin of 10 per cent before he could be penalized was an invitation to cheat and his immunity was guaranteed to that limit. Even when caught many of the penalties inflicted were remitted by the complacent and sympathetic Treasury Department of the Cleveland Administration.

## THE REASON FOR THE PENALTY.

When the act of 1897 came to be framed the leeway of 10 per cent was withdrawn and the penalty of 1 per cent was imposed for every 1 per cent excess of the appraised value over that declared in the entry, a provision which, it was hoped, would reduce the evil of undervaluation and which has aroused the opposition of the foreign consignor. As Chairman Payne said at the hearings of the Ways and Means Committee:

We changed the law because of the representations of the Treasury Department, and of the appraisers and everybody connected with it, that dishonest importers would take their chances on 10 per cent of fraud, and it got to be almost the universal practice of a certain class of importers to guess 10 per cent below the actual value because it did not harm them any, as they simply had to pay duty on the real value. . . . My own opinion is that any per cent should not be allowed, that they are systematically undervalued up to the limit, and that was one reason why we amended the law and struck out the 10 per cent. They asked for 5 per cent; the committee made it nothing.

It is also well to remember that the present provisions were approved by ex-Secretary of the Treasury, Charles S. Fairchild, and ex-Assistant Secretary, Charles S. Hamlin, who reported that the absence of any margin for difference of opinion between appraisers and importer would operate as a constant inducement to the latter to state the market value as accurately as he can, irrespective of the price he himself may have paid. It lies within the power of the importer to state the exact value and avoid the penalty.

Under the *ad valorem* features of the tariff the rich rewards for undervaluation, which tempt men to stultify conscience and justify the perjury necessary to accomplish their ends, are inconceivably great. At various times the amount of revenue of which the Treasury is yearly defrauded has been reckoned at from ten to fifty millions of dollars. Secretary Shaw estimated the loss in revenue from a 5 per cent undervaluation at four or five millions of dollars.



The stopping of underweighing of lemons, the duty on which is one cent per pound, recently saved the treasury \$160,000; and on artichokes, which were being undervalued, \$35,000 in additional duty have been collected. With such opportunities in the less valuable importations, what frauds are possible in the merchandise of great value, if margins are permitted.

#### IS AN ABSOLUTE MARGIN ADVISABLE?

We recognize the fact that the present law, holding the importer strictly to market value, may be a bit rigorous and that it is difficult for the most skilful expert to fix values with absolute correctness; but it must be remembered that it is based on past experience and that every per cent granted makes the inducement for undervaluation the greater and its accomplishment the easier. It may be that some change is desirable, but we doubt the wisdom of this absolute grant of 5 per cent. The old margin of 10 per cent caused the honest importer to accept and present invoices as received, and made him careless as to marking his imports up to market value. To the dishonest importer it was a constant and cordial invitation to undervalue to the limit and as much beyond as was expedient or wise. We fear an absolute right to any margin, whether 10 or 5 per cent, will produce like undesirable results, and that this contemplated change will make it easier to return to practices which injure our industry and commerce, demoralize our people, and disgrace our country.

The general appraisers,<sup>1</sup> familiar with the lessons taught under the act of 1890, regard it as unwise to permit any undervaluation as a matter of course. They suggest instead that an allowance of 5 per cent be permitted in cases where the general appraiser or Board of General Appraisers who hear the case shall certify that the 5 per cent difference between the invoice and appraised price is due to market conditions. That places the power to grant relief in

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<sup>1</sup> See Hearings before Ways and Means Committee, 1906, page 47. — Ed.

the hands of the officials who should know the men obeying the law and those attempting to systematically evade and ignore it. We believe therein is to be found the way to close the door to fraud and furnish relief to the honest importer.

#### THE REASONS FOR CONCESSIONS SOUGHT BY GERMANY.

German interests, as previously stated, were active in seeking concessions in return for the postponement of their high tariff rates against American imports. Negotiations were conducted through the State Department on the basis of changes in the administrative customs law, the Secretary of the Treasury agreeing to make certain recommendations to the Ways and Means Committee, but not committing the Administration to their acceptance and passage by Congress. The reasons for Germany's desire are evident when it is stated that 75 per cent of all her exports to the United States belong to the consigned class, while but 8 per cent of that same kind come from Great Britain; that the customs officials of New York, where such imports are principally received, have more trouble with German importations than with those of any other nation of the first class; that the amendments of 1897 to the administrative customs law are said to have restricted the gains of her merchants and have caused them more loss than the provisions of the tariff law itself and that, according to a speech made at a commercial gathering in Berlin by the chairman of the meeting, changes can be secured "that will be of untold benefit to our American export trade."

Twenty years ago — before Germany had assumed the important position in manufacture she now holds — her exporters were those especially named in the report of the Boston committee of merchants and manufacturers as guilty of undervaluation, and the habit has not grown less with passing years. Then woolens, worsteds, and cutlery were mentioned, but with the development and expansion of her factories, the range of her merchandise now covers a much wider field. Branch houses or agents have been established

on this side, and it is now impossible in many lines to buy except laid down in New York City, duty paid. Foreign prices will not be quoted for these goods made to be sold alone in the American market. The extent and results of such a practice are thus set forth in Bulletin No. 42 of the Paris American Chamber of Commerce by Mr. Andrew D. Lillie, second vice-president, who said :

It is easy to see how it is, and why it is, that under the workings of an ad valorem tariff, firms attempting to import foreign goods on invoices representing actual prices of purchase are, and must be, more and more crowded to the wall by concerns whose invoice prices are set merely with the intention of striking the very lowest figures on which the exporter deems it prudent to venture in running the gauntlet of the Custom House. And, be it remarked, many of these undervaluing firms are concerns of restricted means, slim credit, of small general repute, and whose only advantage is found in the fact that they habitually and systematically take the fullest advantage of the rich opportunities for illegitimate profit afforded by our ad valorem tariff legislation. And thus it is that, in regard to all articles whatsoever to which our ad valorem legislation applies, the constant and inevitable tendency is toward the concentration of business in the hands of the undervaluer, and the gradual elimination of the honest importer from all share in competition.

It is a fact perfectly well known to persons familiar with our foreign trade that there are markets in Europe, and important markets, where it is impossible for an American purchaser to buy otherwise than in dollars and cents, for the goods to be delivered at American destination through some agent of the manufacturer resident in the United States. The seller will refuse to name prices in his own currency, and the purchaser never sees the foreign invoice. He only sees the invoice, of course in American currency, which is furnished him by the agent in America when delivering the goods. And why this is so is no secret at all ; also it is perfectly well known that there are in Europe markets which, as far as the United States is concerned, the undervaluing exporter has made absolutely his own, to the exclusion of honest competition.

The concessions sought by Germany — the right to add to the value of consigned as well as purchased goods, the fixing

of the value, that for export, the return to a 10 per cent margin for undervaluation, and open hearings, if granted — would have meant a perpetuation of the iniquities practised prior to 1897, the crowding to the wall of the honest importer, and the extension of business along the lines so graphically set forth in the foregoing quotation. The German advocacy of such changes is sufficient to create the suspicion that what would be of advantage to her consigning merchants would not be of benefit to the purchasing merchants of this country or the importers who find it difficult to compete with men doing business on that plan. It would be the part of wisdom to beware of Greeks bearing such gifts, and to hold fast to what causes no concern to the great body of law observing merchants and importers.

#### THE CONCESSIONS SUGGESTED AND SECURED.

The German negotiators obtained some concessions from Secretary Shaw which he was frank enough to say he would not have agreed to were it not that the country was securing something for them. While the full requests of Germany were not granted she got more than was expected. The Secretary went so far as to recommend that consignees, as well as purchasers, should have the right, hitherto denied them, to add to market value; that no penalty should be exacted where undervaluation does not affect the duty; that no penalty should be imposed on undervaluations when less than 5 per cent, and that on the next 5 per cent the Secretary of the Treasury, acting on the certificate of the general appraisers that the undervaluation was due to good faith difference of opinion, should be given the right to remit the penalty. In addition to the above recommendations the Secretary issued an order to the general appraisers, "that in re-appraisement cases the hearings shall be open, and in the presence of the importer or his attorneys, whenever, in the judgment of the board, the public interests will not be prejudiced thereby."

Confidential foreign agents were instructed when attempting to discover market value, or cost of manufacture, to



confer first with chambers of commerce and other trade organizations, and to report to the department all information from such sources. Consuls were notified that invoices should be certified by the consul of the district in which the merchandise was purchased, or in which it was manufactured, and not at the point of shipment as formerly, both of which changes were pressed by Germany.

#### PROVISIONS OF THE OLCOTT BILL.

The Olcott bill, espoused by the Merchants' Association Committee, dropped the demand for "export value;" provided for the right of the owner or consignee of merchandise to raise or lower the value as given in the invoice to conform to actual market value; for a 5 per cent variation in the declared value of merchandise, with a penalty of 1 per cent for each 1 per cent in excess of 5 per cent; for the seizure of goods when undervalued by more than 50 per cent, except when due to unintentional or manifest clerical error; for the retirement on two-thirds pay, either on his own request or by direction of the President, of any member of the Board of General Appraisers who has served for fifteen years, or who after ten years' service has attained the age of sixty-five years; for the request by the collector for a re-appraisement within thirty days in cases where he may deem the appraisement too low; and for open hearings in re-appraisement cases and the production of all documentary evidence submitted on behalf of the Government.

#### AMENDMENTS INCORPORATED IN THE PAYNE BILL.

Neither the recommendations made by the Secretary of the Treasury nor the provisions of the Olcott bill were accepted *in toto* by the Ways and Means Committee in the bill H.R. 19750, which considerably enlarged the provisions of bill H.R. 7113, originally known as the Payne bill. Bill No. 19750,<sup>1</sup> which we print elsewhere in this number, was introduced in the House May 28, reported to the House June 2,

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<sup>1</sup>For text of the bill, see page 287. — ED.

and passed June 29, 1906. Its chief changes are: That the owner of purchased imports only may deduct from the cost of value given in the invoice to conform to the actual market value or wholesale price of such merchandise at the time of exportation to the United States in the principal markets of the country whence exported; that the appraised value of merchandise may exceed by 5 per cent the value declared in the entry; that no penalty shall be exacted where the appraised value does not change the duty; that the appraised value must exceed the declared value by more than 100 per cent before it is held presumptively fraudulent and the goods become subject to seizure; that the President may remove the general appraisers only for inefficiency, mental or physical incapacity, neglect of duty or malfeasance in office; that the collector must order a re-appraisement, if desired, within thirty days; that the boards of three general appraisers may within thirty days from the receipt of their decision by the collector grant a rehearing when, in their opinion, the ends of justice may require it; that the general board of nine appraisers may establish such reasonable rules of practice not inconsistent with law as may be deemed necessary for the conduct of its proceedings and of the proceedings of the boards of three general appraisers; that appeals shall be taken within thirty days to the United States Circuit Court from the decisions of the general appraisers as to classification; that all evidence must be introduced before the general appraisers, except when the Circuit Court may order additional testimony taken on any particular fact.

It will be seen from the foregoing that many of the changes in this pending bill are intended to widen the powers of the Board of General Appraisers, reduce the number of unnecessary appeals, and effect prompter settlement of disputed questions. Modified open hearings have been ordered for a time, but the right to them has not been written in the proposed law. The privilege to add or deduct from the invoice value has been restricted to purchasers of merchandise, and the demand for the adoption of "export value"

was so ill advised that it was not even urged before the Ways and Means Committee. The concession of 5 per cent absolutely is to be regretted, but it is not so objectionable as the 10 per cent desired by Germany or the recommendation of the Secretary of the Treasury, in the carrying out of the gentlemen's agreement, of 5 per cent absolute and the discretionary remittance of the penalty for an additional 5 per cent variation. It is a question whether German interests will be satisfied with a bill which fails to put consignees on a par with purchasers, to grant the margin of 10 per cent for undervaluations, and to provide by law for the much desired open hearings. While we recognize the great desirability of escaping from an embarrassing position and of avoiding a threatened tariff war, considerations persuasive and powerful with the Committee and the House, we cannot help but regard it as unwise to encourage by any concession practises which in the past have bred disrespect for law, given opportunities for fraud, open and glaring, and have made it comparatively easy for dishonest men to drive incorruptible competitors from certain lines<sup>1</sup> of business. That German interests, the oldest and greatest offenders, made the outcry was evidence that, hard as it is to detect these crimes against our revenue, the scope for illicit gains had been lessened by the law of 1897 and its enforcement. Is it wise or in the interests of good public morals to make its provisions weaker rather than stronger?

J. B. MCP.

## REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON CUSTOMS SERVICE AND REVENUE LAWS OF THE NEW YORK MERCHANTS' ASSOCIATION.

CARRYING out the theory that the Bulletin should be a depository of all matters affecting in any way the wool industry, we reprint the report of the committee of the New York Merchants' Association on proposed changes to the customs administrative law, which was made to the Hon. Leslie M. Shaw, Secretary of the Treasury, on January 27, 1906, and which is the subject of criticism in other pages of this issue. Though but few of its recommendations were accepted by the Ways and Means Committee, it is well to have a record of the changes actually urged upon the committee.

### REPORT OF COMMITTEE.

HON. LESLIE M. SHAW, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

SIR: The customs administrative act of June 10, 1890, as amended by act of July 24, 1897, is entitled "An act to simplify the laws in relation to the collection of the revenues," and the labors of our committee have been directed, in great part, to simplification of said act by the removal of certain ambiguities, and more closely conforming the language of the various sections.

We have the honor to submit the following propositions:

*First.* In Section 3, line 18, *et seq.*, in the words "the actual market value or wholesale price thereof at the time of exportation to the United States," it is proposed to insert after the words "price thereof" the words "for exportation," so that it shall read: "the actual market value or wholesale price thereof for exportation at the time of exportation to the United States."

It is well known that patented articles in foreign countries, as well as our own, have frequently two or more distinct market values, *i.e.*, one price for home consumption in the patented territory, another for export.

It having been held, however, by the U.S. Supreme Court that but one market value can be recognized by the law, *i.e.*, that at which the merchandise is "freely offered for sale to all purchasers," appraising officers have usually recognized the highest of such varying market values as the actual market value of the merchandise in question.

It is manifestly unfair to the importer that the price asked for home consumption should be taken as the "actual market value," when identical merchandise is "freely offered for sale to all pur-



chasers" for exportation to the United States at a much lower price.

The same condition prevails where special taxes are levied by foreign governments upon goods sold for consumption within that country, but remitted when such goods are exported. In such cases the U.S. Supreme Court has construed the law as requiring the inclusion of the amount of such taxes in the dutiable value of such merchandise when imported, although the said taxes are not paid by the importer or shipper.

*Second.* Section 3, lines 23-27, strike out the words "and that it is the price which the manufacturer or owner making the declaration would have received and was willing to receive, for such merchandise sold in the ordinary course of trade, in the usual wholesale quantities," and insert the words, "and it is the price which the manufacturer or owner making the declaration expects to obtain, and is willing to receive, for the merchandise from the consignee thereof."

We respectfully submit that no shipper or importer should be called upon to make oath or declaration as to what he "would have received" for merchandise sold in the ordinary course of trade, if he does not sell the same in the ordinary course of trade. Such a statement is the mere expression of an opinion or speculation and could not possibly form the foundation for any prosecution for perjury. Nor should a shipper or importer be called upon to state that he would have been "willing to receive" a certain price for goods which were not for sale. In many instances the foreign manufacturer is not selling any goods at all in the ordinary course of trade, but is consigning to agents in different countries. He could not truly declare that he was willing to sell such merchandise at the price stated in the invoice or, indeed, at any price except one which would be inflated or fictitious. Nothing should be inserted in these declarations except what honest men can truly subscribe to, and a man who is not selling goods cannot truly say he was willing to receive a certain price from a party, other than the consignee, when he knows he was not willing; nor should he be asked to make the hypothetical statement that he would have received that price.

*Third.* In Section 4, line 12, *et seq.*, it is proposed in the words "or if obtained otherwise than by purchase, the actual market value or wholesale price thereof at the time of exportation to the United States," to insert after the words "price thereof" the words "for exportation," so that this clause shall read: "or if obtained otherwise than by purchase, the actual market value or wholesale price thereof for exportation at the time of exportation to the United States."

This change is proposed so that the language of the present Section may conform to that used in Section 3, for reasons already stated.

*Fourth.* Section 5, in the declaration of consignee, importer,

or agent, line 33, it is proposed to amend the words "that the invoice now produced by me exhibits the actual cost (if purchased) or the actual market value or wholesale price (if otherwise obtained) at the time of exportation to the United States," by inserting after the words "or wholesale price" the words "for exportation," for the reasons already stated.

*Fifth.* In Section 5 add at the end of declaration of consignee, the following in brackets:

"The person making this declaration shall be required to strike out the words 'or the actual market value or wholesale price, if the merchandise was purchased,' or the words 'the actual cost' if otherwise obtained, in accordance with the facts in the case."

This change is in harmony with the suggestion of the U.S. Attorney of this district, Henry L. Burnett, as made by him in a communication to the Solicitor of the Treasury under date of April 6, 1899, in part as follows:

"In the case of a declaration of a consignee, importer, or agent of merchandise there is an anomaly in the declaration to which I desire to call your attention. There the importer, following the form set out in Section 5, says: That the invoice now produced by me exhibits the actual cost (if purchased) or the actual market value or wholesale price, and the collector receives this declaration in this alternative form. In proceedings, therefore, to forfeit the goods, or in an action for the value, as in a case of forfeiture, the importer may fall back on any one of the three statements made by him as being true: either it was the actual cost, the market value, or the wholesale price.

"*En passant*, it seems to me the collector ought to be instructed that when receiving these declarations the importer should be required to strike out two of these three alternatives, and to declare specifically either it was the cost, or it was the market value, or it was the wholesale price. It does not seem to me that Congress intended that the declarations should contain all three of these expressions and in the alternative."

*Sixth.* In Section 5, declaration of owner, in cases where merchandise has been actually purchased, line 1, insert after the words, "I, ———, do solemnly and truly declare that I am the owner," the words "by purchase."

Such change will make this form of declaration more specific and eliminate such cases as have been brought to our attention, as where the person making this declaration was not the actual owner of the merchandise in question, but through certain agreement with the *bona fide* owner, honestly believed himself qualified to make such declaration. This change has also the approval of the U.S. Attorney's office.

*Seventh.* In Section 5, declaration of manufacturer or owner in cases where merchandise has not been actually purchased, line 12, insert after the words "wholesale price," the words "for

exportation." The reason for this change has already been stated.

*Eighth.* In Section 5, declaration of manufacturer or owner in cases where merchandise has not been actually purchased, lines 17-20, strike out the words "and is the price which I would have received and was willing to receive for such merchandise sold in the ordinary course of trade in the usual wholesale quantities," and insert the words "and it is the price which I expect to obtain, and am willing to receive, for the merchandise from the consignee thereof."

The reasons for this proposed change have been given under the second proposed amendment.

*Ninth.* In Section 7, lines 2, 3, it is proposed to strike out the words "which has been actually purchased," and to strike out in lines 12-14 the words "but no such addition shall be made upon entry to the invoice value of any imported merchandise obtained otherwise than by actual purchase."

From a careful reading of the preceding sections, it is manifest that consignors have no rights which are not shared by shippers of merchandise which has been actually purchased. It therefore seems logical that consignees should have an equal right with purchasers in being permitted in their entry to raise invoice values when their information shows the same to be too low. Under the present law the consignee is frequently called upon either to swear to a statement he knows to be false, or to abandon his goods.

It is the opinion of many customs officials with whom we have raised this question, that the Government would be the gainer, not the loser, by the proposed change, which is approved by the Collector of the port of New York.

*Tenth.* In Section 7, lines 5, 6, after the words "make such addition in the entry to," insert the words "or such deduction from," and in lines 8, 9 insert after the words "as in his opinion may raise," the words "or lower."

As duties upon imported merchandise are to be assessed upon "the actual market value," and appraising officers are called upon to determine such "actual market value," it is the logical sequel of permission to add to make market value that deductions from invoice value should also be permitted for a similar purpose. This proposed change is approved by the Collector of the port of New York.

*Eleventh.* In Section 7, line 9, after the words "or wholesale price," add the words "for exportation."

The reasons for above changes have been already stated.

*Twelfth.* In Section 7, line 23, after the word "entry," add the words "by more than 5 per centum," and in line 26, after the word "centum," add the words "in excess of 5 per centum."

This proposed change has the approval of the Collector of the

port of New York, and of the Board of General Appraisers,<sup>1</sup> and follows the phraseology suggested by the latter.

We respectfully submit that, as actual market value of merchandise is not a definite quantity, but fluctuates within certain limits, and is more or less proportionate to the volume of the transaction, and since there is always a certain difference in the values given for identical merchandise when appraised by the best experts, margin of 5 per cent should be allowed between the entered and appraised value of merchandise before any penalties should accrue. We believe that herein we express the views of the leading customs officials, as well as those of the importers.

*Thirteenth.* In Section 7, line 29, after the word "undervalued" insert the following: "and shall not be imposed upon any article upon which the amount of duty imposed by law, on account of the appraised value, does not exceed the amount of duty that would be imposed if the appraised value did not exceed the entered value."

The tariff act now in force contains many paragraphs imposing specific duties per pound or per yard, etc., on the merchandise described therein, with a proviso at the end of the paragraph that in no case shall the duty to be assessed be less than a certain percentage ad valorem. It has been held by the Supreme Court in the case of *Hoeninghaus v. United States*, 172 U.S. 622, that in the case of such goods the duty is "in some manner regulated by the" value under the provisions of Section 7. The result is, that where the advance by the appraiser does not carry the merchandise to the line which would subject it to an ad valorem duty but leaves it subject to precisely the same specific duty that it would have paid if not advanced, importers are nevertheless mulcted an additional duty because the appraised value exceeds the entered value. We do not believe it was the intent of the law-makers to provide for the imposition of penalties in cases like these where there was no motive or inducement to undervaluation, nor can merchants be expected or required to make such careful inquiry as to market value when they know their goods will pay a specific duty, as they would if they had reason to suppose their goods would be liable to ad valorem duties. The imposition of penalties in these cases has been a matter of extreme hardship, and we believe that the leading customs officials favor this proposed change in the law which follows the phraseology suggested by the Board of General Appraisers.

*Fourteenth.* In Section 7, line 33, after the word "from" strike out the word "a" and insert the words "an unintentional."

We respectfully submit that in many instances errors arise which, under the present construction of the Treasury Department, are not "manifest clerical errors," and yet whereby inno-

<sup>1</sup> For contrary statement, see Hearings before Ways and Means Committee, 1906, pp. 47 and 104.—ED.



cent parties must suffer through an error which can easily be proven to be such by proper and satisfactory proof of the same.

This proposed change will leave it within the power of the Secretary of the Treasury to remit penalties in the case of an unintentional error.

We believe that the interests of the Treasury Department under this proposition will be fully protected, and that parties innocent of any intent to defraud the Government of its just revenues will have a fair opportunity to obtain justice.

It has never been the intention of the United States Government to profit by unintentional errors committed in good faith, and we submit that this proposed amendment is most desirable, on the grounds of equity and fairness to both parties.

*Fifteenth.* In Section 7, line 41, strike out the word "shall" and substitute the word "may."

*Sixteenth.* In Section 7, line 49, after word "shall" insert the word "only," and strike out after the word "to" the words "the whole of the merchandise or the value thereof in the case or package containing."

As to the advisability of these proposed changes in line 41 and line 49 respectively, we beg leave to submit extracts from the letter of U.S. Attorney Burnett, above quoted, as follows:

"I am of the opinion it is almost impossible to secure in customs cases a verdict in favor of the Government in any case where only a technical violation of the law is charged — where it is not charged and proved that there was an intent to defraud the Government, or where the act would result in loss to or fraud upon the Government. The customs administrative act, Section 7, as amended by Section 32, act of 1897, has given rise to a series of *in rem* proceedings and actions for value based upon presumptive fraud arising from undervaluations of more than 40 per cent (now 50 per cent) upon the basis of the appraised value. As applied to purchased goods this statutory presumption is practically without any probative force in the courts, if any evidence be introduced on behalf of the importers.

"This statutory presumption of fraud appears to have been first introduced into our customs system by the act of 1890, and its wisdom as regards purchased goods is more than doubtful, as its basis has in effect no real relation to cause of action to be established by the Government. Unlike the liability on the part of the importers for the additional or penal duties, which is not in any sense based on fraud or intent, these forfeiture proceedings are based upon fraud, of which the undervaluation is made merely presumptive evidence. Fraud arises, however, only where there have been acts or omissions intended to deceive, contrary to the duty that the importer owes to the Government. In the case of goods obtained otherwise than by purchase, the importer is required to state the market value in his invoice (with the declaration and certificate taken thereon abroad before the Consul),

and the entry and declaration thereon taken at the Custom House here.

"This market value is the same thing that the appraising officers are to ascertain here, so that undervaluation of 50 per cent or more, when the invoice and entered value is contrasted with the appraised value, signifies with reasonable probability that the importer (and the shipper abroad, whose acts he ratifies) has understated the value the law called upon him to state, and this, presumably, knowingly.

"But in the case of purchased goods the invoices are not only not required to give the market value, but the statutes specifically provide that they shall give another and a different value, the cost or purchase price, and the entry must give this invoice value, with the privilege, but not the *duty* in such cases, to add to this to make market value on the entry. A difference of even 50 per cent between this invoice value (purchase price) and the appraised value (market value as defined in the act) does not strongly suggest fraud, because the two may be honestly different and have no necessarily close relationship to each other, and as to such purchased goods the law nowhere casts obligation upon the importers to give the market value. The difficulty of successful prosecution becomes more marked in view of the statutory requirement (Section 7) that the forfeiture shall apply to the whole package in which such undervalued article is to be found, no matter how trivial relatively the value may be compared with that of the whole package. . . .

"Of course, if there is evidence of actual fraud as distinguished from this mere presumption of undervaluation, Section 9 of the customs administrative act (and the earlier statutes which it replaced, Revised Statutes 2864, and Section 12, Act 1874) affords ample relief to the Government independently of the statutory presumption of fraud. In a case of purchased goods, additions to make market value, authorized by Section 7 of the customs administrative act, are permissive and not mandatory (see language of the statute and *Hoeninghaus v. United States*, 172 U.S. 622), and in the declaration made by the importer where the merchandise has been actually purchased in the form prescribed in Section 5, the importer states that the 'invoice and entry . . . contains a just and faithful account of the actual cost of said goods, etc.' You will see, therefore, that the declaration does not pretend to give the market value, nor is the importer required, under Section 7, to state market value, but *may* do so. In case, therefore, a purchaser of goods states the cost and fails to state market value, what actual fraud can be predicated upon his not doing what the law does not require him to do, and when the value is increased by more than 50 per cent and the goods are seized or suit instituted, how easy it is to overcome the presumption of fraud by proving he did actually state the cost and the truth in the matter."

This proposed change does not in any sense contemplate the abolition of suits for forfeiture where the advance exceeds 50 per cent, but leaves it to the discretion of the District Attorney to enter upon such suits as in his judgment can be successfully conducted.

*Seventeenth.* In Section 7, last sentence, strike out the words "invoice or."

It having been already proposed to permit the importers to enter goods at less than the invoice value, the law should not forbid the taking of duty on less than the invoice value; hence the above amendment becomes necessary.

This proposed change has the approval of the Collector of the port of New York.

*Eighteenth.* In Section 8, strike out the entire section. The proposed repeal of this section of the act is in harmony with the suggestion of the Collector of the port of New York, in his letter to the Secretary of the Treasury, under date of June 16, 1903, covering an analysis of the preliminary report of our committee, which letter is in part as follows:

"Yet the provisions of this section have caused much difficulty and delay in administration, and, so far as this office is concerned, have failed to produce any beneficial results. In respect to goods actually purchased and consigned for sale on account of foreign owners, there has been a complete failure to produce at the time of entry the statement required by this section, and the invoices produced have been certified at actual cost instead of market value.

"In respect of goods consigned for sale by or on account of the manufacturer thereof, statement of cost of production, while made in formal compliance with the requirements of this section, have failed to furnish any valuable information for custom purposes, and consequently, this section, as a whole, has proved an obstruction instead of an aid to good administration.

"Whatever disposition may be made of other parts of the act I think this section should be repealed."

*Nineteenth.* In Section 10, line 8, after the word "price" insert the words [and] "for exportation." The reason for this proposed change has been fully stated under first proposed amendment.

*Twentieth.* In Section 11, after the word "ascertained" in line 19, strike out the remainder of this section.

We respectfully submit, as reasons for this proposed amendment, that a disposition has been shown by certain appraising officers to invoke the provisions of this section, which it is now proposed to strike out, as authority for inquiry into the price at which importers have sold, or contracted to sell, the particular merchandise under appraisement to parties in the United States. In the opinion of your committee this is an unwarrantable and improper inquisition into the affairs of merchants. There are

goods for which no foreign market value can be fixed without inquiring into prevailing American prices, and making deductions for transportation, charges, duties, etc. The portion of this section not stricken out will give the appraisers ample power to appraise such goods in the manner suggested, but we are of the opinion that it was not the intention of Congress to sanction the appraisement of particular goods with reference to the price at which those goods were sold, or contracted to be sold, in the United States, and that it is better that all doubt on the subject should be removed by striking out the provisions of this section under which it has been sought to justify such practice.

*Twenty-first.* Section 12, line 9, after the word "office" insert the following:

"Any general appraiser who has served as such for a period of fifteen years, or who after ten years' service has attained the age of sixty-five years, must, if he requests, or may, if the President shall deem it desirable, be retired on two-thirds of the salary received by him at the time of such retirement."

A judge of any federal court who has held a commission ten years, and has attained the age of seventy years, may resign and receive the same salary during the residue of his natural life which was payable to him at the time of his resignation (U.S. Revised Statutes, Section 714). The duties of a general appraiser are constant and exacting, much more so than a judge in United States Court, and require that he should be physically and mentally vigorous.

The proposed amendment does not make retirement obligatory after fifteen years' service, or upon attaining sixty-five years of age, but the labors of a general appraiser are at times so exacting that an appointee must be comparatively young to be able to serve with full efficiency for more than fifteen years. While a judge need serve but ten years and attain the age of seventy to be able to resign on a full salary, the variations in conditions would make the proposed amendment fair, as reduction of salary on retirement and requirement of longer term than ten years' active service more than compensates for reducing the age of possible retirement. If, after fifteen years' service, or on attaining sixty-five years of age, a general appraiser is still vigorous and efficient, his continued services could still be required by the Government, as he could not resign and draw his full salary. There are approximately one hundred federal judges appointed for life. The number of cases decided by the nine general appraisers far exceeds the whole number decided by the federal bench. The Board of General Appraisers is the tribunal which passes upon disputed questions arising in the collection of \$200,000,000 per year for revenues, and the importance of its decisions may be appreciated when two decisions alone in the worsted cases by the board, as opposed to the opinion of the Attorney General, saved the Government nearly \$1,500,000. As not more than five of the



nine general appraisers can be appointed from the same political party, it is and was intended to be a non-partisan tribunal, and it was the intention of the framers of the law that they should hold their offices for life, subject to removal only for "inefficiency, neglect of duty, or malfeasance in office." They are the only officials having such important judicial functions and appointed for life for whom no provision is made for retirement, and this, too, after having given the best years of their lives in the service of the Government, and thus rendered unfit for other occupations. For the above reasons we consider and urge the proposed amendment to Section 12 as eminently fair and right and just.

*Twenty-second.* In Section 13 insert after the words "he may" in line 12, the words "within thirty days thereafter," and in line 32, after the word "shall" insert the words "within thirty days thereafter." The above changes are approved by the Board of General Appraisers.

We respectfully submit that, as under the present law an importer is required to file his protest within two days, it is no more than fair to such importer that he should be informed within a reasonable time as to whether or not the collector deems a re-appraisement necessary, nor can the proposed change work any great hardship upon the Government.

*Twenty-third.* In Section 13, lines 20, 21, after the words "one of the general appraisers," insert the following:

"All hearings in re-appraisement cases shall be public. All documentary evidence submitted on behalf of the Government, including reports of government agents, either at home or abroad, shall be shown to the importer or his counsel. All witnesses called on behalf of the Government shall give their testimony in the presence of the importer, and be subject to cross-examination by the importer or his counsel, subject to such rulings as to the competency and relevancy of questions as may be made by the general appraiser or Board of General Appraisers. All testimony on behalf of the importer shall be given openly, and the importer, or any witnesses produced by him, may be cross-examined by any officer of the Government designated by the collector or Secretary of the Treasury for that purpose."

The proposal of open hearings before the general appraisers has long been discussed, and the evidence in favor of such a change seems conclusive. We respectfully submit that the present form of star chamber investigation is repugnant to the spirit of the American people; that it tends to the introduction of evidence which, if not knowingly false, is yet carelessly prepared, and which differs radically from the evidence which would be offered were the same to be given publicly by the witness in the presence of his competitors; that the falsity or untrustworthiness of the evidence submitted would often be shown were the importer permitted to publicly question the witness; that such proposed open hearings would result in fewer appeals being taken

from the decision of the appraiser, since only those cases would be appealed wherein the importer honestly believed his grievance to be just; and finally that it would permit the honest importer to remove any stigma which might attach to the imputation of his having undervalued merchandise, by submitting the exact facts openly and fully to the public.

*Twenty-fourth.* In Section 19, in line 4, after the words "wholesale price" insert the words "for exportation," and in line 24, after the words "or wholesale price" add the words "for exportation."

The reasons for this proposed amendment have been already stated.

*Twenty-fifth.* Section 21, line 5, before the word "Provided" insert the following:

"In all actions for the forfeiture of the value of merchandise which has passed from the custody of the Government into the custody of the defendant, the burden of proof shall lie upon such defendant to show that such merchandise was not knowingly undervalued."

This change is proposed to cover such cases as where goods have been imported illegally but have gone into the possession of the importer and disappeared, and where actions have been commenced subsequently by the Government for the value thereof, on account of such illegal importation.

Section 21, as it now reads, applies only to suits or informations where seizures have been made pursuant to statute, and not to actions for the value after goods have gone out of custody of the customs officials.

This proposed change has the approval of the U.S. Attorney's office, and of the Board of General Appraisers, and we respectfully submit that the advantage to the Government of such change is obvious.

All of which is respectfully submitted by

Committee on	{	THOMAS H. DOWNING, <i>Chairman.</i>
Customs Service		HERMAN A. METZ.
and		GEORGE F. VIETOR.
Revenue Laws.		J. CRAWFORD McCREERY.
		GEORGE W. J. ANGELL, <i>Secretary.</i>

## PROTEST OF THE PURCHASING IMPORTERS.

IMPORTERS were not a unit in endorsing the report of the Merchants' Association committee. The purchasing importers, such as Arnold, Constable & Co., W. & J. Sloane, Lord & Taylor, Marshall Field & Co., Mills & Gibb, Locke & Altherr, and Carson, Pirie, Scott & Co., vigorously opposed the Olcott bill, which contained many of the suggestions of this report, as against their interests. Their views were contained in the following report, signed by a number of the above, which was read at a meeting held March 21, 1906, and which should appear as part of the record in this movement. It is as follows:

The undersigned, a committee appointed at a meeting held on Wednesday, March 14, 1906, at the Broadway Central Hotel, respectfully submit the following statement:

Certain measures are being considered by the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives, which have for their object the amendment of the customs administrative act. The efficient administration of the tariff law is among the most important duties of the national Government. Its enforcement involves:

(1.) A courteous treatment of the citizens of foreign Governments with whom we trade, wherever they are brought into contact with our official life.

(2.) A policy of justice towards those who are engaged in the business of importing merchandise.

(3.) The safeguarding of American capital and American labor.

(4.) The collection by the Government of its necessary revenue, and protection against losses arising from undervaluations and other forms of fraud.

No one will seriously question that the customs administrative act referred to has had a deterrent effect upon undervaluation, and produced a more satisfactory dispensation of the tariff laws than was ever possible before its passage; it is, therefore, because of the uniformly successful operation of this statute that we, as importers, strongly deprecate any radical changes in that law. We especially condemn many of the provisions of the measure known as H. R. 15267, or the "Olcott bill," as subversive of the interests of both American importers and manufacturers. We submit that, in the absence of a pressing public demand, resting upon legitimate complaints and proved deficiencies, it is inexpedient and unwise, as contemplated in the "Olcott bill," to

attempt to disturb the well-settled principles contained in the customs administrative act.

We are informed that this measure is the work of a committee of the Merchants' Association of New York, and that the bill was introduced at its request. In view of the fact that an attempt has been made through a public meeting held in New York on March 7, 1906, to make it appear that this measure is almost unanimously desired by the mercantile interests of New York, we wish to protest publicly against any such idea being credited by the authorities at Washington. The Merchants' Association has, through its officers, repudiated all responsibility for the meeting to which reference has been made, and we welcome its disclaimer.

It has been asserted on behalf of the "Olcott bill" that it is the consummation of a study, extending over a period of six years, by the Merchants' Association, of the alleged shortcomings of the customs administrative act. This might indicate a very deliberate method of approaching this question, but as the principal objections of the critics of this law are practically the same as they were some six years ago, it is pertinent to ask why the Congress has not been asked for relief before this time. An analysis of the bill will suggest, if not wholly prove, that those responsible for it have evidently taken advantage of the tariff dispute with Germany, to forward this bill as a palliative for that diplomatic disorder, at the same time incorporating in it a number of provisions entirely unrelated to that question.

We present the following statement of our views upon the "Olcott bill":

Suggestion One: It is proposed to change Section Three of the act by striking out the words, "and that it is the price which the manufacturer or owner making the declaration would have received, and was willing to receive, for such merchandise sold in the ordinary course of trade, in the usual wholesale quantities," and inserting in place of them the words, "and it is the price which the manufacturer or owner making the declaration expects to obtain, and is willing to receive, for the merchandise from the consignee thereof."

This change is undeniably in favor of those who consign goods to this country for sale by brokers or commission merchants, and eliminates "market value" as the standard by which the dutiability of goods should be determined. In its place would be substituted, as the basis upon which the duty would be figured, the "export price" of the merchandise as determined in the country from which the goods are consigned. In the analysis of the "Olcott bill" published by the Merchants' Association, the change contemplated is not so explained, but an attempt is made to show that the amendment aims only to enable the "shipper or importer" to make a declaration of value that would



represent a closer approximation of the state of his mind on the question of value at the time of making the shipment.

There must of necessity be some standard according to which values will be determined — the standard must be either “market value” or “export price.” When it is considered that these goods as consigned are to be sold in competition with goods actually purchased abroad, in a competitive market, and quite as important, in competition with goods manufactured in this country, the reason why “market value” has long been the legalized as well as the ethical standard does not seem to require elucidation. The change set forth in this section of the bill is not a change of mere verbiage; it is a change of the system which was devised and has been adhered to in the interests of fair dealing.

This change would enable foreigners to consign their goods to this market, under conditions of great advantage to them, but of positive harm to our own importers and manufacturers. The present form of oath demanded of such a consignor is one which requires him to conform to the principles of “market value” in entering his goods, or in having them entered for him. The criticisms made of this oath by the Merchants’ Association Committee to the effect that at present a consignor is called upon to indulge in a mere expression of opinion as far as value is concerned, in making the declaration, are not justified by a correct understanding of the obligations contained in that oath. The intent of the oath, fully expressed by its language, is to insist upon an entry of values in the invoice, which will be the market values: any changes which will permit of a departure from this fundamental rule are destructive of the principle upon which the determination of the value rests, and will result not only in discrimination and hardships as affecting our own people, but be a direct encouragement to persistent and growing fraud upon the Government. While, in several instances, the Merchants’ Association Committee cites officers of the Government as being in favor of certain of the amendments, it should be distinctly stated that the change outlined in the amendment under discussion is contrary to the policy of the Government, and has on former occasions been condemned by its representatives in the Treasury Department.

Those who have at heart the interests of the domestic manufacturer should be alert to the damage resulting to him, if foreign manufacturers were permitted to consign their goods to this country and enter them on the basis of “*export price, or what they expect to obtain, and are willing to receive*”; the elasticity of judgment, to say nothing of conscience, involved in this form of declaration would destroy the barriers erected, and justly so, in behalf of American labor and enterprise. Because of this and the other reasons advanced, we believe that this amendment and all correlative sections of the bill should be eliminated.

Suggestion Two designs to correct a condition now existent,

under which the declaration of a "consignee, importer or agent" as to the nature of the entry lacks specification. The form contains two methods of declaration, applicable to cases where the goods to be entered have been either purchased or "otherwise obtained," and although the transaction may be one or the other, the form of declaration when executed contains both provisions cited. It is hardly possible that it was intended that the executed declaration should be in this form, and a change that will remedy this incongruity is undoubtedly desirable.

Suggestion Three requires that the words "by purchase" be inserted in the declaration of an "owner in cases when merchandise has been actually purchased," in order that the oath taken by such owner will specifically define that he is not only the "owner," but that he is the "owner by purchase," thus carrying out the evident intent of the law; we consider that this change is a proper one and approve it.

Suggestion Four sets forth the change that would be necessary in the declaration of a manufacturer or owner in cases where merchandise has not been actually purchased, if the changes called for in Suggestion One were adopted. We have explained our opposition to that suggestion at length, and as Suggestion Four is merely a "perfecting" provision, discussion of it is unnecessary. It is disapproved.

Suggestion Five proposes to accord to consignors the right "to add to make market value;" this right being reserved under the present act to cases where the goods to be entered have been actually purchased. A reason advanced for this change is that consignees should be permitted to enjoy this right in the same sense as actual purchasers. As a theoretical proposition, this may sound well, but it should be remembered that the conditions under which an actual purchaser enters his goods are different from those of a consignor. In the one case the purchaser has taken all the risk of the foreign market, and has either paid for the goods before entry or obligated himself for their payment. The reasons why his invoice figures may be somewhat below market value are due to the judgment he has displayed in his purchases and the special concessions he has been able to obtain. Difference due to these causes he covers at the time of entry by raising his invoice to make market value. The consignor, on the other hand, is unburdened by any obligations. He sends his merchandise to this country to find a market for it. His disposition is to enter it at the lowest possible figure, and the propensity has been to undervaluation. This has been shown by the practice of consignors' agents in turning back shipments that were palpably undervalued, and it is no injustice to state that this practice could not have been the result of "unintentional errors." We believe that it will be dangerous to make any such change as is herein concerned, as the liability of many undervalued shipments being passed is great, and the further

possibility of its being an incentive to corrupt methods on the part of interested persons and officials.

Suggestion Six would change the customs administrative act to the extent of allowing those who enter goods to deduct from the invoice in order to make market value. It is argued on behalf of this amendment that if it be proper to add to make market value, the "logical sequel" is that there should be permission to deduct for the same purpose. It seems plausible that when purchases have been made in a high market, that at the time of entry buyers should be permitted to take advantage of a falling market and deduct to reach the "actual market value." These amendments would also confer this power or right upon consignors of goods; and, generally speaking, we believe it would be a serious error to introduce so decided an innovation; and that the insecurity which would be created, due to wholesale attempts at undervaluation which this change would invite, would be manifestly disproportionate to any possible benefits derivable from it.

Suggestion Seven prescribes that no penalty shall be levied unless the appraised value shall exceed the entry value by 5 per centum. The purpose of the customs administrative act is to induce a degree of care on the part of those who enter merchandise which will minimize the possibility of errors or undervaluations, and therefore leave little room for penalties or forfeitures. While the spirit of this proposed change may be very praiseworthy, we believe that if adopted into the law it would have a tendency to promote shiftiness in entered values and studied attempts to circumvent the requirements of the tariff schedules. Further, in certain lines of business, 5 per centum represents a considerable and dangerous margin; and it being our conviction that this change would also tend to impair the immutable standard of market value, we disapprove of this amendment.

Suggestion Eight provides that Section Seven of the act shall be amended so that additional duties levied because of the appraised value exceeding the entered value "shall not be imposed upon any article upon which the amount of the duty imposed by law, on account of the appraised value, does not exceed the amount of duty that would be imposed if the appraised value did not exceed the entered value." The idea contained in this amendment is to save importers from additional duties or penalties in cases where the duties are regulated upon a specific basis with an ad valorem minimum, in the event that the appraised value does not involve the payment of a larger regular duty than would have had to be paid if there had been no advance. The following example will show the injustice of the present system, and illustrate the intended workings of the amendment:

"Say colored cotton goods counting under 200 threads to

square inch, and not costing over  $12\frac{1}{2}$  cents per square yard, the duty would be specific. If costing over  $12\frac{1}{2}$  cents per square yard, the duty would be 40 per cent ad valorem. Say goods 36 inches wide, costing  $5\frac{3}{4}$  pence sterling per yard, liable to a duty of 5 cents per square yard. Now, if the value should be raised to  $6\frac{1}{4}$  pence sterling per yard, the duty would still be 5 cents per square yard and yet the importer would have to pay *penalty* for undervaluation.

"Take silk goods liable to a duty of \$2.25 per pound, but not less than 50 per cent ad valorem. Goods weighing 5 ounces per yard and costing 6.50 francs per yard, the duty at that price would be \$2.25 per pound. Now, if the value was raised to 7.20 francs per yard, the rate would still be \$2.25 per pound, but the penalty would accrue for undervaluation.

"In both these instances the raise in value would not take the goods from the specific rate and put them into the ad valorem rate. In the case of the cotton goods  $6\frac{1}{4}$  pence sterling per yard would still cost less than  $12\frac{1}{2}$  cents per square yard, and in the case of the silk goods the \$2.25 per pound would still figure out more duty return than 50 per cent ad valorem."

We believe that the change here proposed is a proper one, and approve it.

Suggestion Nine: It is now provided in Section Seven of the act that "additional duties shall not be construed to be penal, and shall not be remitted, nor payment thereof in any way avoided, except in cases arising from a manifest clerical error, nor shall they be refunded, in case of exportation of the merchandise, or on any other account, nor shall they be subject to the benefit of drawback. Provided, that if the appraised value of any merchandise shall exceed the value declared in the entry by more than 50 per centum, except when arising from a manifest clerical error, such entry shall be held to be presumptively fraudulent."

It is proposed to insert the words "an unintentional error" so that additional duties would not be imposed, nor a presumption of fraud held, even where the appraised value exceeded the entered value by over 50 per centum, if it appeared that the entry was the result of an unintentional error or a "manifest clerical error." This change does not approve itself to us. A "manifest clerical error" is a reasonably determinable quantity; an "unintentional error" is not. It is a practical impossibility to prove intent, even where supported by documentary and other evidence, as well as suggestive circumstances. Who is the Solomon who will decide that a man did not intend to make an error? Who is the seer who will look into the mind of the foreign consignor four thousand miles away and say he did not intend to make an error? Those who enter goods into the American market are supposed to be, and as a rule are, familiar with the requirements of our laws on the subject. Sufficient allowance has been made for them



when "manifest clerical errors" exempt from the penalties of additional duties or forfeiture where the appraised value has risen to over 50 per centum. There are so many subterfuges to which resort could be made under the "unintentional error" clause, that it would, if adopted, unquestionably become a rippling river of fraud. We emphatically disapprove of this proposed amendment.

Suggestion Ten proposed to strike out the word "shall" in line 41 of Section Seven (printed copy of the act) and insert in its place the word "may." This would render it discretionary with the collector to seize merchandise where the entry is held to be presumptively fraudulent. It would appear to us that a mandatory rather than a permissive power better accords with a virile enforcement of the customs laws, and that this proposed amendment should also be disapproved.

Suggestion Eleven: It is well known that in cases of forfeitures, due to undervaluations, they apply "to the whole of the merchandise or value thereof in the case or package containing the particular article or articles in each invoice which are undervalued." This section of the bill would limit this forfeiture to only the particular article or articles which are undervalued, and exempt whatever other goods there might be in the case or package. This proposed amendment appears to have something of merit in it, but we are also of the opinion that the present provision of the law, as described, although drastic, exercises a healthful influence upon those who may be tempted to undervalue their importations.

Suggestion Twelve requires that the words "invoice or" be stricken from Section Seven of the law, last sentence. These words would have to be eliminated if the change advocated in Suggestion Six were adopted. The same objections that we have entered against Section Six would, therefore, apply to this additional change, and it is not necessary to repeat the reasons heretofore explained.

Suggestion Thirteen: The purpose of this proposed amendment is to deprive the Board of General Appraisers of the right now conceded to them under the law, to take into consideration the wholesale price of merchandise sold in the United States in determining the dutiable value of imported goods. In explaining this proposed amendment, the Merchants' Association Committee concedes that "there are goods for which no foreign market value can be fixed without inquiring into prevailing American prices and making deductions for transportation, charges, duties, etc." They hold that the portion of Section Eleven of the law which would be left intact would give the appraisers ample power to appraise such goods in the manner suggested; but the opinion expressed by this committee, competent though it may be, is not conclusive on this point, and we consider that it is improper to strike from the law a specific legalization of such

authority and leave the question as to the right of the appraisers to inquire into the quotations for which merchandise is sold in the United States entirely open to question. It cannot be urged that inquiry by the appraisers into wholesale values in the United States, in order to satisfactorily determine the values at which goods should be entered in order to comply with the market value requirement, can work a hardship to any one interested. On the contrary, it was undoubtedly the design of Congress in framing the law to make the scope of investigations into prevailing prices as broad as possible. It would appear that the wider or more prolific the inquiry, the more thorough will be the investigation, the more satisfactory the information or evidence then placed in the hands of the appraisers, with the natural consequence that a decision rendered on the basis of such information would be more intelligent and definite. In the absence of better reasons than those suggested for this proposed change, and in view of the opinions we have expressed in opposition thereto, we disapprove of this proposed amendment.

Suggestion Fourteen provides that "any general appraiser who has served as such for a period of fifteen years, or who after ten years' service has attained the age of sixty-five years, must, if he requests, or may, if the President shall determine it desirable, be retired on two-thirds of the salary received by him at the time of such retirement." Of the spirit and purpose of this amendment we cordially approve. We believe that there is an entire concordance of opinion throughout the country as to the desirability of rewarding faithful service on the part of officials by such provision for their later years as will insure to them a competence during the period after their physical and mental endurance have been sufficiently taxed, especially in the case of officials whose duties require unceasing application to detailed work. An amendment to the law that will confer such a benefit upon the general appraisers we believe would be a salutary change. We regret, however, that the incorporation of this proposed amendment by the Merchants' Association Committee in the "Olcott bill" was not accompanied by such further recommendations as would enhance the scope and prerogatives of the Board of General Appraisers; and in that way, in all probability, obviate much of the complaint now indulged in against the administration of the tariff law.

Suggestion Fifteen specifies the time within which the collector may order a re-appraisement in cases where, in his judgment, the appraisement of any imported merchandise has been too low. In other words, if the collector, for any reason, should adopt this attitude toward an invoice of imported merchandise, he would be permitted to order such a re-appraisement within thirty days, and the idea of the amendment evidently is to require him to order such a re-appraisement within that time. At present there is no specification contained in the law as to a time limit during which

he shall order a re-appraisement. Under this proposed amendment, the same condition as to thirty days' time would govern the collector in the case of a re-appraisement. We believe that it is advisable to make such a specification as to time, but would also suggest that the importer be given a longer period than two days, as at present set forth in the law, in which to make an appeal from an appraisement or a re-appraisement. Delays in the mail, carelessness of officials, custom house brokers, or employees of the importer, may at times render it impossible for him to comply with the two days' requirement. In addition, it would seem reasonable that if the importer were allowed a longer period than two days, he would have a better opportunity to study the merits of his own case, with the result that in many instances he would decide that it was inexpedient or unnecessary to make an appeal, thus saving himself a great deal of time, labor and expense, and saving the department to the same extent. While approving the amendment contained in Section Fifteen of the bill, we also suggest that the time limit during which an importer may make an appeal from an appraisement or a re-appraisement be extended from two days, as at present, to eight days.

Suggestion Sixteen: The two most important amendments contained in the "Olcott bill" are, the establishment of "export price" as the standard of value on consigned goods, and that which is contained in Suggestion Sixteen known as "open hearings."

We wish to express ourselves as unreservedly opposed to "open hearings," and indulge the belief that a calm consideration of the question will result in pronounced and general opposition to making any material changes in the methods now employed for determining appraisements.

The Board of General Appraisers is not a judicial body. It is in no way related by statute to the judicial system. It is not a law-dispensing tribunal. Its duties are executory. These facts should be borne in mind by those who advocate what are called "open hearings" when they apparently base their case on the supposition that the board possesses judicial functions, or that its work is of a judicial character.

The amendment in question would require:

(1.) That all hearings in re-appraisement cases should be public.

(2.) That all documentary evidence on behalf of the Government, including reports of Government agents, would have to be shown to the importer or his counsel.

(3.) That all witnesses must give their testimony openly, and be subject to cross-examination.

(4.) That the general appraisers may make rules as to the competency and relevancy of questions.

Those who are opposed to these changes are quite as jealous of

their own rights and privileges and those of their fellow-citizens as are the advocates of "open hearings." Is it reasonable to suppose that if all that is said or written in favor of this change were believed to be correct, any difference of opinion would exist? Is it to be said that merchant A., who believes in holding to the present appraisement methods, is not as strong an adherent of that "principle which is fundamental and inherent in the common law and underlies the whole system of jurisprudence in this country" as merchant B. who invokes it in favor of "open hearings"? The truth is that merchant A. knows from his business experience that the change contemplated is a dangerous one. He believes that it will not result advantageously in practice; he is convinced that the change will be injurious in that its workings will make it extremely difficult to arrive at as correct an estimate of values as is possible at the present time, with the result that the tendency to undervaluation will be largely augmented.

There is little doubt that if the evidence secured by Government agents is to be made public, as this amendment demands, the ability of those agents to acquire the evidence which is essential to the determination of "market value" will be almost entirely negative. Those foreign manufacturers and dealers who have been in the habit of furnishing such information will decline to do so when they realize that their names are to be made public and that they will be subjected to such retaliation or reprisal as a buyer of goods may inflict upon a seller. If this extremely valuable fund of information is denied to the Government, its interests are prejudiced in a double sense: first, the efficiency of its tariff system is impaired; and second, through undervaluations made possible by the condition that would develop, its revenue is also decreased. In support of this conclusion, we will now call as a witness a pronounced advocate of "open hearings" whose testimony before the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives at a hearing held February 23, 1906, was as follows:

The CHAIRMAN (Mr. Payne).—You will acknowledge that it is pretty difficult for the Government to get at the actual market value of goods?

Mr. DOWNING (Mr. Thomas H. Downing of New York).—Yes, sir; it frequently is.

The CHAIRMAN.—If the law was amended so as to cut off this avenue of Government proof, it would open the door wider for fraud upon the revenue?

Mr. DOWNING.—That is the contention made by some of the gentlemen connected with the Revenue Department, I believe.

The CHAIRMAN.—Is it not true, if that avenue is closed?

Mr. DOWNING.—It would not be closed except to a certain extent.

The CHAIRMAN.—I say that if the avenue which the Government now has to get at the facts is closed, it would make it still more difficult to prevent fraud?

Mr. DOWNING.—Yes, sir; it would.

The CHAIRMAN.—Is it not a fact that the honest manufacturer, as a rule,



is desirous of having his goods, and especially the goods of his rival, appraised and taxed at the full market value?

Mr. DOWNING. — Yes, sir; naturally.

The CHAIRMAN. — Does it not often happen that reputable importers are not able to import goods themselves, although they are very large buyers, but buy them of somebody in New York who is able to import cheaper or has some facilities for undervaluation or underpayment of duty?

Mr. DOWNING. — Frequently, yes, sir.

The CHAIRMAN. — That is occurring all the time?

Mr. DOWNING. — Yes, sir.

The CHAIRMAN. — So that it is a pretty difficult subject from the beginning to the end?

Mr. DOWNING. — Yes, sir; it is a delicate subject. I will admit that very freely.

We do not believe that it is impossible to conduct a thorough investigation unless it be an open one. It frequently happens in business matters (appraisements are such) that a much more satisfactory conclusion can be arrived at when publicity is not given to the proceedings. Important information is obtained in every department of business under the seal of confidence that would certainly be withheld if the identity of its source was to be revealed. Neither is it just to assume that because men are indisposed to speak for publication that their opinions lack anything of truth. The argument that those who appear before the appraisers and give their views in regard to values are unreliable simply because they are not willing to advertise their opinions, is not justified when the character of the merchants or their representatives who give their testimony is understood. It may be that in some cases rivals of an importer may instigate an investigation into an entry he has made, with a view to having it advanced, and offer dishonest evidence in behalf of such an advance. Does it necessarily follow that the appraisers will rest the case on the evidence of this rival or of those whose attendance as witnesses he may have inspired? Not by any means; under the system of calling in reputable merchants in a line of trade to give their evidence, the testimony of a rival in business who had gone to the extremes indicated (this case being an example cited in behalf of open hearings) would be either verified or disproved.

The provision of this amendment which would subject every merchant who is willing to testify in regard to values before the Board of Appraisers to a cross-examination, which could be distorted into an inquisition into the private affairs of that merchant's own business, calling for the production of his books, invoices, purchase memoranda and correspondence, means that it would be almost impossible to secure the attendance of merchants of standing at these inquiries. It is palpable how helpless the appraisers would be if deprived of the information which comes to them from Government agents and resident merchants. The consequences would be that the evidence of the importer whose entry was under discussion, and those for whose attendance as

witnesses he was responsible, would be practically the only evidence before the appraisers, and the limitation of the volume of evidence would mean that values would not be determined with that intelligence and exactness that would be possible if the testimony of impartial witnesses had been obtainable.

In making the foregoing criticisms, we have not overlooked the fact that the amendment provides that the General Appraisers shall make rules as to the relevancy and competency of questions, but who believes that any rules that might be adopted would avoid the conditions which have been suggested as the natural outflow of this legislation?

It seems to be a well-settled principle of action that appraisements, whether of imported goods or real estate, can be better determined through private investigation than public inquiry; when we claim that the present methods of appraising imported goods is analogous to the methods of appraising real estate for taxation purposes, the advocates of open hearings assert that the analogy is not a true one, as a dissenting tax-payer can ask for a review by the courts. In some States he can do so, but in others it is as confidently claimed that he cannot. When a man objects to the assessment put upon his property for taxation purposes, he can go before the tax board and ask for a reduction; at this hearing he is not faced with his "accusers" (the appraisers who have valued the property), and the board considers all the evidence it can get publicly and privately. This tax-payer, however, has not had anything to say as to the value that has been placed upon his property, while the person entering goods at the Custom House has been given every opportunity to put his own value upon them. He knows or is supposed to know the laws on the subject, and can guard himself accordingly. If undervaluation were an uncommon thing, it would appear reasonable to permit some leeway in the present method; but as it is a practice against which the Government and honest merchants must constantly guard, the reins must be held tightly. We believe that the present method of investigation into values is the most serviceable one for the Government, for importers, and home manufacturers.

Suggestion Seventeen provides that "In all actions for the forfeiture of the value of merchandise which has passed from the custody of the Government into the custody of the defendant, the burden of proof shall lie upon such defendant to show that such merchandise was not knowingly undervalued." We believe that the change suggested is a proper one, and that in such cases the burden of proof should rest upon the defendant, as such obligation will, in our judgment, strengthen the administration of the customs administrative act.

Suggestion Eighteen provides for the entire elimination of Section Eight of the customs administrative act. The purpose of this section of the law is to require the filing by a manufacturer

of a statement signed by him, declaring the cost of the merchandise when such merchandise is being entered for customs duty to be consigned for sale or for the account of the manufacturer; this statement to be in addition to the certified invoice or statement in the form of an invoice required with every entry. The same obligation applies to a consignor other than the manufacturer of the merchandise. It has been the experience of the customs officials that it is practically impossible to secure any uniform or reasonable compliance with the provisions of this section of the law; the difficulties encountered being fully explained in a letter of the Collector of the port of New York to the Secretary of the Treasury, dated June 16, 1903, quoted in part by the Merchants' Association Committee in its analysis of the Olcott bill. It would appear to us that the interests of all concerned are sufficiently safeguarded by the other provisions of the law, and we therefore approve this amendment.

#### RECAPITULATION.

*Suggestion One.* — Establishing "export price" as the standard on goods consigned to this country. Disapproved.

*Suggestion Two.* — Making the declaration of a consignee more specific. Approved.

*Suggestion Three.* — Requiring that the declaration of an owner should specify that he is the owner by purchase. Approved.

*Suggestion Four.* — A perfecting provision in line with Suggestion One. Disapproved.

*Suggestion Five.* — Permitting a consignee to add to make market value. Disapproved.

*Suggestion Six.* — Permitting deductions to make market value. Disapproved.

*Suggestion Seven.* — Relief from penalty when the undervaluation is not more than 5 per centum. Disapproved.

*Suggestion Eight.* — Relief from penalty where the advance in a case of specific duty would not mean the payment of a greater duty than if there had been no advance. Approved.

*Suggestion Nine.* — Remitting penalties and forfeitures where an unintentional error has been made in the entered value. Disapproved.

*Suggestion Ten.* — Changing the mandatory requirement upon the collector to make a seizure to a permissive one. Disapproved.

*Suggestion Eleven.* — Limiting a forfeiture to the goods actually undervalued without respect to others contained in the same package or case. Disapproved.

*Suggestion Twelve.* — A "perfecting" provision in line with Suggestion Six. Disapproved.

*Suggestion Thirteen.* — Depriving the general appraisers of the right to inquire into wholesale values in the United States. Disapproved.

*Suggestion Fourteen.* — A retirement provision with compensation for general appraisers. Approved.

*Suggestion Fifteen.* — Defining the time in which the collector may order a re-appraisement or re-reappraisement. Approved.

*Suggestion Sixteen.* — "Open hearings." Disapproved.

*Suggestion Seventeen.* — Placing the "burden of proof" in forfeiture cases upon the defendant. Approved.

*Suggestion Eighteen.* — Eliminating Section Eight of the customs administrative act. Approved.

(Signed.)

GOLDENBERG BROS. & CO.,

By S. L. GOLDENBERG.

MILLS & GIBB,

By WALTER GIBB, *President*.

G. GIDENBERG, & CO.,

By ALFRED H. GIDENBERG.

EINSTEIN, WOLFF & CO.,

By P. R. G. SJOSTROM.

MUSER BROS.,

By FRITZ MUSER.

JOHN PULLMAN & CO.,

By W. T. PULLMAN.

LOCKE & ALTHERR,

By JOHN M. LOCKE.

ARNOLD, CONSTABLE & CO.,

By JNO. W. WRIGHT.

LORD & TAYLOR,

By C. E. BEERS, V. P.



LETTER OF PRESIDENT WHITMAN TO G. W. J.  
ANGELL.

THE following letter was sent by Mr. William Whitman, president of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, to Mr. G. W. J. Angell, secretary of the Committee on Customs Service and Revenue Laws of the New York Merchants' Association. It was written in reply to Mr. Angell's protest against the resolutions adopted by this Association at the last annual meeting respecting the report of the committee of which he was secretary.

BOSTON, MASS., March 8, 1906.

MR. G. W. J. ANGELL, *Secretary*, New York, N.Y.

DEAR SIR: Your letter of February 15, and the report of your first committee, came duly to hand, and I regret that pressing work in other directions prevented earlier consideration of your request; but, inasmuch as we have no means of complying with it—should we deem that request just—it makes but slight, if any, difference, I presume, that the matter has stood open for some days.

You say that the resolutions adopted at the recent meeting of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers "would seem to accuse our committee of having acted in bad faith, and, as this impression is not only misleading but absolutely contrary to the facts in the case" you ask that we give as much publicity to your statement of the case as has been given to our resolutions.

I have again read the resolutions in which we stated that the former Secretary of the Association and a member of the Executive Committee never acted with either of the said committees, and have never been consulted concerning the report (that of 1906), knew nothing of its contents until printed, and do not approve of many of the proposals therein contained.

Literally taken, I believe the foregoing to be true; for, as far as I can learn, they never met with your committee of 1900, and were never consulted concerning the contents of that report before it was put in type, though one of them did write in approval of it and the other approved certain of its recommendations.

You justified the action of your committee in printing these names in this report on the ground that the report of 1900 and this recent one are in all respects similar, the difference being only in certain changes in the phraseology of the proposed amendments. To this statement I must take exception; for one important change, not merely verbal, is the submitting of all documents in cases of re-appraisal to the inspection of the

importer or his counsel — a provision appearing in the second, and not in the first report. Certain amendments omitted in the latter report may have been those to which Mr. North gave his approval in his letter which you quote to me, but this I have no means of knowing.

The two reports do not seem to have been regarded as the same even by your own organization. You designate the first report as that of the general committee on revision of the customs laws appointed by the Merchants' Association of New York. The second is the report of the committee on revenue laws and custom service. The one is made to His Excellency, William McKinley, President of the United States; the other is to the Honorable Leslie M. Shaw, Secretary of the Treasury. The one committee was composed of six members, the other of five. The names of three members of the former committee do not appear in that of the latter, and the membership is reduced by one. There is nothing to show that the one is the authorized successor of the other. The fact is, the former committee organized, as stated, upon the suggestion of President McKinley, having submitted its report, appears to have exhausted the authority of its appointment; and there is nothing to show the reader that the general committee (whose names you quote) were ever asked to grant further power to this second committee making this report.

I know no code of ethics which permits a committee having made one report and presumably executed its commission, to appoint new members, and after a lapse of a half dozen years make a new report to a different official, and in that report print at large, as if in approval of the recommendations therein contained, the names of the former general committee, some of whom at least did not approve of some of the then suggested changes, and to whom the second altered and amended report was never sent for examination. Even if the reports were identical in name and contents, the fair, honorable thing to do in such a case was to mark the dead members, and again send the report to the living members for examination; for, after the lapse of so long a time as six years, opinions entertained at the former date might have undergone a change. This you confess you did not do, an omission, in my opinion, which lays your committee open to the charge of unfairness. Even in respect to the dead, I am informed that the firm of which the chairman of your committee in 1900 was a member, is now opposing open hearings.

But that aside, upon your own statement to me it is clear that the action of the general committee of 1900 was not fairly shown in your first report. Of your forty-six members of the committee you say the report received the unqualified endorsement of but twenty-four members — a bare majority at best — one of whom has since changed his mind. A number of the remaining members sent their regrets but expressed no opinions, as you state.

In the case of Mr. North, he wrote you that he could not approve of some of the suggested amendments, and yet his name appears in the list with no word in the report of his opposition to some of the recommendations, or of the fact that he is no longer officially connected with the National Association of Wool Manufacturers. Nor is there disclosed anywhere in the report the vote by which it was adopted, the number present at the meeting at which it was ratified, and the number not taking enough interest in the matter to reply to your letter. When I tell you that for more than two and a half years prior to the issuing of your 1906 report Mr. North had been Director of the Census, and severed his connection with the Association before he assumed the duties of his new position, it is a suggestive commentary on the closeness of touch maintained by your association with the members of your "General Committee of 1900."

This holding out to the public of the names of all the members of the committee as if they approved of your suggestions — whether they were sufficiently interested in the movement or not to reply to your circular letter transmitting the report, or whether they put themselves on record as opposed to some of your recommendations — created a false impression, and justly merits the condemnation of fair-minded men. It is a procedure similar to that followed within recent years by the Reciprocarians in this Commonwealth, who counted all in favor of that propaganda to whom their petitions and pledges were sent who neglected to declare themselves in opposition to it.

The effect of this misrepresentation is evidenced by the use made of your committee's report by "The Buyer, American and Foreign," in its recent February number, in which it is stated that "the General Committee under whose auspices this report has been drawn and made up, *consists* of the following representative merchants in various lines." You will observe that the present tense is used, and the report referred to is not that of 1900, but that of 1906.

I cannot believe that your sub-committee was unable to see the misapprehension which would be caused by the publication of the names of the General Committee of 1900, who were totally ignorant of your intention to publish this second report, and I feel obliged to designate it as a piece of sharp practice, not approved or even tolerated in dealings or disputes between upright, honorable men.

This letter is an expression of my own personal views, and inasmuch as this Association holds but one regular meeting annually, and that on the first Wednesday of February, I see no way at present by which your request for action by our Association can be complied with, even should the Association take your view in the matter.

Very truly yours,

(Signed) WM. WHITMAN,  
Pres't Nat. Asso. Wool Mfrs.

## Editorial and Industrial Miscellany.

### A NEW WOOL COMBING MACHINE.

THE following description of a new wool combing machine, which, in the judgment of the writer of the article, contains the most important improvements made in such machinery in many years, appeared in a recent number of the Manchester "Textile Recorder." If thorough commercial tests shall prove true half the merits claimed for it, American manufacturers will early become its users. The article says:

There have been in comparatively recent years numerous instances in which machines for the textile trades have been invented, and for which the inventors predicted great things, and claimed that their machines would completely revolutionize that particular branch of industry, but in the greater number of instances these machines have simply dropped into oblivion in a very short time. There have been, however, very few machines indeed which have been able to show such really solid advantages as a new Noble's comb, which has been recently made by the Patent Conveyor Company Limited, Lower Ernest street, Bradford (the invention of Mr. Cooper, Mr. J. F. White, and Mr. Louis Cooper, all of Bradford), and which has been shown at work and thoroughly tested under commercial conditions with a considerable range of different wools.

The Noble's comb has for the last twenty years been rapidly gaining ground in the worsted industry as a general purpose comb, as compared with the Holden or Lister combs, partly because of its big production, but especially because of its adaptability to a wide range of qualities. But there have been several drawbacks to the use of this comb, some of which cannot be obviated in consequence of the principle of the comb, such as for instance the difficulty of preventing neps, which just happen to lie between the two circles, from getting into the top; and also the fact that if the production of the comb is increased by a longer feed there is a larger proportion of noil produced. But more serious drawbacks still have been the cost of upkeep of the comb, owing to the wear and tear of the dabbing brush and leathers, and the excessive power required to drive these brushes at a high rate of speed, and the consequent vibration produced by this speed on a shaft situated high up on the comb, and which has to communicate power to all parts of the machine. This shaft is carried on heavy pillars made as rigid as possible to



minimize the vibration, but the position of this shaft is bad mechanically, and is only placed at this point in order to drive the dabbing brushes.

Another serious disadvantage of the ordinary Noble's comb is the great inconvenience of changing the comb circles, necessitated by a change in the class of wool being treated, as the whole of the driving gear and pillars (weighing about seven hundred-weight) have to be lifted up by blocks before the circles can be taken out, and inventors have been busy with improvements to minimize this difficulty. One machine is now made with the pillars outside the small circles, and the dabbing brush is carried on a projecting arm from the pillar to the position at which it must dab, namely, the junction of the large and small circles. Another invention makes a joint in each of the pillars and a coupling on the shaft, which passes down through the pillar to drive the comb, so that the upper gearing and pillars can be lifted up without disturbing the gearing under the comb when it is necessary to change the circles.

All this upper gearing and the consequent vibration, high speeds, and trouble in changing, is necessitated entirely by the method of putting the wool into the circles by means of a dabbing brush, and if this particular mechanism can be dispensed with, very radical changes can be at once introduced. The whole of the top gear and pillars can be removed, thus taking away this mechanically bad drive and the cause of most of the vibration, and reducing the weight of the comb by about seven hundred-weight, and at the same time doing away with the only part of the comb involving excessive speed in driving.

Very great attention has been paid in recent years to improvements in the dabbing brush mechanism (balanced dabbers, etc.), but at the best this is only patching up a bad job, for although a Bradford combing manager has declared that the "dabbing brush is the comber's best friend," he should have added "and at the same time his worst enemy," for by dispensing with this mechanism the greatest obstacle to higher speeds and therefore to greater production is removed, as in the larger proportion of cases the speed of the circles is almost entirely dependent on the speed at which the dabbing brush can be run.

In the machine at present under consideration this very desirable object has been accomplished, and the dabbing brush entirely dispensed with, the wool being placed in the circles by the action of rolling discs or "inductors," supported on very short pillars in the center of each small circle. These "inductors" consist of hardened steel discs with notched or toothed edges, something like small circular saws, but running with the backs of the teeth first. There are two of these discs for the large circle and two for the small circle at each point of contact of the circles where the wool is placed in the pins, that is, at each point where a dabbing brush would usually be required.

The "inductors" for each circle are supported and driven independently on short shafts, which are carried on bearings capable of being raised or lowered as required. The discs are set so that they revolve, with a surface velocity slightly greater than that of the comb circles, in between the rows of pins in the large and small circles respectively; the two in the large circle being between the second and third and the fifth and sixth rows of pins, reckoning from the finest or inside row, while the two discs of each small circle are between the second and third and the fourth and fifth rows of pins, reckoning from the finest or outside row. Thus there are on the large circle two fine rows of pins on the inside, then a disc, then three more rows of pins, followed by the second disc, and then the remainder of the rows of pins on the outside. In the small circle, beginning with the outer rows, we have them as follows: Two rows of pins, a disc, two more rows of pins, the second disc, and one row of pins on the inside.

The height and speeds of each pair of discs are independently adjusted so that they simply press the wool down into the circles without deflecting it either backwards or forwards, and there is no necessity to jam the wool right down on to the brasses of the circle as is usually done with the dabbing brush. A supplementary pair of discs, with corrugated edges and set well up above the circle pins, slightly depress the wool after it comes off the level of the lifter knives, to give it a lead into the pressure of the "inductors."

Each short pillar carries a revolving shaft driven from the gearing plate, and these terminate in a grooved pulley, which drives by means of a round leather belt or cord to the toothed gearing which drives the inductors. There are two stationary steel blades fixed to the inductor framework and curved to fit between the rows of pins of the large circle, and these are so placed that their bottom edges are level with the shoulders of the comb pins and the wool after passing out from under the inductors is prevented from rising out over the pins by these plates during the time of the combing caused by the separation of the circles at this point. Another similar plate opposite the large circle drawing-off rollers also prevents any fibers from being drawn out over the top of the pins, thereby ensuring that all the fibers shall pass through the finest rows of pins in being combed.

The whole of the driving of the comb is below the level of the gear plate, so that there is not even a belt above these short pillars to obstruct the light, this being one of the points which would particularly strike any person used to ordinary Noble combs on seeing the new comb for the first time; but this arrangement makes the changing of the circles a very simple matter, for it is only necessary to unscrew the inductor castings from the short pillars to be able to take out either large or small

circles. Of course the noil knives, lifter knives, and press plate must be removed for this operation as in an ordinary Noble's comb, but circle changing is a very simple matter with the new comb as compared with the old.

The removal of the dabbing brush motion also makes a great difference in the power required to drive the comb, as this motion absorbs a very large portion of the total power required for the comb, whereas the slow running inductors take very little power indeed.

The greatest feature of this new comb is, however, the fact that, having done away with the dabbing brushes and its system of driving, a third small circle has been introduced in addition to the two in the ordinary comb, thereby giving at once 50 per cent more production, or in other words, three combing operations instead of two, but the matter does not end here, for the circle can be driven at an increased speed without being limited as before by the speed of the dabbing brush, and therefore getting directly increased production in proportion to the greater speed from all three combing operations, therefore a comparatively small increase of speed means a 50 per cent greater increase of production as compared with the ordinary comb with two small circles only. The practical limit of speed in this comb being that at which it is possible for the attendant to take up ends without stopping the comb, but, if necessary, a much higher speed than this could be obtained, if the comb was stopped each time for taking up or replacing ends. It is found that a speed of slightly over four revolutions per minute of the large circle gives about the best practical speed at which the attendant can take up ends without stopping the machine, and this would be about 15 per cent faster than the usual speed in the older type of combs.

It can safely be said that the total production of this machine is about double that of an ordinary Noble comb; an actual test made by the writer on 50s to 54s crossbred wool, working with only ten-ounce ends, gave a result of just over one thousand pounds of top per day of ten hours, or practically double the average production of an ordinary Noble comb on the same class of material.

With an ordinary dabbing brush each dab on the circles tends to produce vibration and jumping in all the circles, and this to a great extent prevents the setting of the small circles close up to the large circles, allowance having to be made for this vibration; but in this new comb, having knocked out the high speeds and the brushes, there is a very notable absence of vibration in the comb, which not only tends to much longer life in all the parts, but enables the circles to be set much closer together, and therefore reduces the liability of neps getting down between the circles and thence into the "top," but the great reduction of vibration also allows the drawing-off rollers for both large and

small circles to be set closer up to the brasses, thereby enabling a better "result" so far as proportion of "top" to "noil" is concerned (where this is required), in fact it has been found that, in batches of wool sent to comb by the top-makers on this machine, there has been an average of one to two points more of "top" as compared with the same wool combed at the top-makers' own works, and in several cases actually from the same balls, thus where a top-maker has been getting say 15 to 1, the new machine gets 16 or 17 to 1. Of course the smaller amount of noil is not always desirable, but it indicates that if the new comb was set to produce the same result as that of the top-makers it would have to have a little longer feed (by setting down the press knife) to get more noil, but the longer the feed and the greater the production or output of the comb, therefore the figures given of the actual tested production would be increased if this larger noil was obtained.

The whole of the cost of replacing and repairing the dabbing brushes (which is such a serious item in most combing establishments) is saved, as these inductors practically last as long as the comb; or, in any case, only require renewing at long intervals and at small cost. Again there is no variation in the manner in which the wool is put into the circles when the inductors are once set to suit the wool being treated, but with dabbing brushes there is certain to be variation according to their state of repair. In the new machine there is no necessity to jam the wool right down on to the circle beds, and in consequence it lies much lighter in the pins, and draws out much easier, therefore giving less risk of breakage of fiber, and also requiring less weight on the drawing-off rollers, thereby reducing the wear and tear of the leathers, with, of course, a corresponding saving in the cost of upkeep of these leathers (again a serious item in the cost of combing).

No star wheels or stokers are used to lead the ends of the fibers on the little circle round into the nip of the drawing-off rollers, but this is accomplished by means of an air blast capable of easy regulation. An air blast is also utilized for removing the noil from the comb, this material being lifted out of the small circles in the ordinary manner, and is toppled off the noil knives into the mouth of a small funnel, and is sucked away from there by the current of air and conveyed by pipes into a sheet or other suitable receptacle.

In consequence of the enormous output of this comb, and the frequency with which the ordinary coiler cans were filled up, a specially large coiler has been attached which delivers the wool into a can holding a much larger quantity than the ordinary ones.

The ordinary gear plate of the comb has, of course, been redesigned to give the necessary drives to the extra small circle and drawing-off rollers, and the toothed gearing under this plate



has been dispensed with entirely, and all the driving is done by a chain and sprocket wheel, which renders the alteration of speeds a much simpler matter, merely necessitating the changing of the sprocket wheel concerned, as the chain has a self-adjusting tension motion, which enables it to adapt itself immediately to the changed size of the sprocket wheel.

All the other parts of the comb, such as the circle bearings, drawing-off rollers and leathers, the leather traverse motion, press knives, lifting knives, etc., are quite normal, and the roller stands and their adjustment are also the same, except that this firm's patent pressure regulator is utilized, by which the tension on the springs at the top and bottom of the rollers are entirely adjusted from a small handle at the top of the stand, the two pressure screws being coupled together by a small rod and worm gearing, so that any movement of one end is of necessity communicated to the other, so that when the springs are put on and once adjusted to equal pressure it is impossible for them to get out of this uniformity, whether a great or small pressure is used.

This comb has been very favorably commented upon by the practical top-makers and combers who have seen it, and it is undoubtedly the most important improvement in combing machinery which has been made for a very great number of years, at any rate.

## ENGLISH WOOL-SORTING AND WOOL-COMBING REGULATIONS.

AFTER negotiations between the Bradford Chamber of Commerce, the Operatives' Association, and the British Home Office, extending over a period of two and one-half years, the revised wool-combing regulations have been promulgated for the processes of sorting, willowing, washing, combing, and carding goat hair and camel hair. These regulations are as follows :

### *Definition.*

For the purpose of Regulations 2, 3, and 18, opening of wool or hair means the opening of the fleece, including the untying or cutting of the knots, or, if the material is not in the fleece, the opening out for looking over or classing purposes.

### *Duties of Occupiers.*

1. No bale of wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules shall be opened for the purpose of being sorted or manufactured, except by men skilled in judging the condition of the material.

No bale of wool or hair of the kinds named in Schedule A shall be opened except after thorough steeping in water.

2. No wool or hair of the kinds named in Schedule B shall be opened except (*a*) after steeping in water, or (*b*) over an efficient opening screen, with mechanical exhaust draught, in a room set apart for the purpose, in which no other work than opening is carried on.

For the purpose of this regulation no opening screen shall be deemed to be efficient unless it complies with the following conditions:

(*a*) The area of the screen shall, in the case of existing screens, be not less than 11 square feet, and in the case of screens hereafter erected be not less than 12 square feet, nor shall its length or breadth be less than  $3\frac{1}{4}$  feet.

(*b*) At no point of the screen within 18 inches from the center shall the velocity of the exhaust draught be less than 100 linear feet per minute.

3. All damaged wool or hair or fallen fleeces or skin wool or hair, if of the kinds named in the schedules, shall, when opened, be damped with a disinfectant and washed without being willowed.

4. No wool or hair of the kinds named in Schedules B or C shall be sorted except over an efficient sorting board, with mechanical exhaust draught, and in a room set apart for the purpose, in which no work is carried on other than sorting and the packing of the wool or hair sorted therein.

No wool or hair of the kinds numbered (1) and (2) in Schedule A shall be sorted except in the damp state and after being washed.

No damaged wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules shall be sorted except after being washed.

For the purpose of this regulation, no sorting board shall be deemed to be efficient unless it complies with the following conditions:

The sorting board shall comprise a screen of open wirework and beneath it at all parts a clear space not less than 3 inches in depth. Below the center of the screen there shall be a funnel, measuring not less than 10 inches across the top, leading to an extraction shaft, and the arrangements shall be such that all dust falling through the screen and not carried away by the exhaust can be swept directly into the funnel. The draught shall be maintained in constant efficiency whilst the sorters are at work, and shall be such that not less than 75 cubic feet of air per minute are drawn by the fan from beneath each sorting board.

5. No wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules shall be willowed except in an efficient willowing machine, in a room

set apart for the purpose, in which no work other than willowing is carried on.

For the purpose of this regulation, no willowing machine shall be deemed to be efficient unless it is provided with mechanical exhaust draught so arranged as to draw the dust away from the workmen and prevent it from entering the air of the room.

6. No bale of wool or hair shall be stored in a sorting room; nor any wool or hair except in a space effectually screened off from the sorting room.

No wool or hair shall be stored in a willowing room.

7. In each sorting room, and exclusive of any portion screened off, there shall be allowed an air space of at least 1,000 cubic feet for each person employed therein.

8. In each room in which sorting, willowing, or combing is carried on, suitable inlets from the open air, or other suitable source, shall be provided and arranged in such a way that no person employed shall be exposed to a direct draught from any air inlet or to any draught at a temperature of less than 50° F.

The temperature of the room shall not, during working hours, fall below 50° F.

9. All bags in which wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules has been imported shall be picked clean, and not brushed.

10. All pieces of skin, scab, and clippings or shearings shall be removed daily from the sorting room, and shall be disinfected or destroyed.

11. The dust carried by the exhaust draught from opening screens, sorting boards, willowing or other dust extracting machines and shafts shall be discharged into properly constructed receptacles, and not into the open air.

Each extracting shaft and the space beneath the sorting boards and opening screens shall be cleaned out at least once in every week.

The dust collected as above, together with the sweepings from the opening, sorting, and willowing rooms, shall be removed at least twice a week and burned.

The occupier shall provide and maintain suitable overalls and respirators, to be worn by the persons engaged in collecting and removing the dust.

Such overalls shall not be taken out of the works or warehouse, either for washing, repairs, or any other purpose, unless they have been steeped over-night in boiling water or a disinfectant.

12. The floor of every room in which opening, sorting, or willowing is carried on shall be thoroughly sprinkled daily with a disinfectant solution after work has ceased for the day, and shall be swept immediately after sprinkling.

13. The walls and ceilings of every room in which opening, sorting or willowing is carried on shall be limewashed at least

once a year, and cleansed at least once within every six months, to date from the time when they were last cleansed.

14. The following requirements shall apply to every room in which unwashed wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules, after being opened for sorting, manufacturing, or washing purposes, is handled or stored:

- (a) Sufficient and suitable washing accommodation shall be provided outside the rooms and maintained for the use of all persons employed in such rooms. The washing conveniences shall comprise soap, nail brushes, towels, and at least one basin for every five persons employed as above, each basin being fitted with a waste pipe and having a constant supply of water laid on.
- (b) Suitable places shall be provided outside the rooms in which persons employed in such rooms can deposit food and clothing put off during working hours.
- (c) No person shall be allowed to prepare or partake of food in any such room: Suitable and sufficient meal room accommodation shall be provided for workers employed in such room.
- (d) No person having any open cut or sore shall be employed in any such room.

The requirements in paragraph (c) shall apply also to every room in which any wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules is carded or stored.

15. Requisites for treating scratches and slight wounds shall be kept at hand.

16. The occupier shall allow any of H.M. Inspectors of Factories to take at any time, for the purpose of examination, sufficient samples of any wool or hair used on the premises.

#### *Duties of Persons Employed.*

17. No bale of wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules shall be opened otherwise than as permitted by paragraph 1 of Regulation 1, and no bale of wool or hair of the kinds named in Schedule A shall be opened except after thorough steeping in water.

If on opening a bale any damaged wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules is discovered, the person opening the bale shall immediately report the discovery to the foreman.

18. No wool or hair of the kinds named in Schedule B shall be opened otherwise than as permitted by Regulation 2.

19. No wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules shall be sorted otherwise than as permitted by Regulation 4.

20. No wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules shall be willowed except as permitted by Regulation 5.

21. Every person employed in a room in which unwashed wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules is stored or handled shall observe the following requirements:



- (a) He shall wash his hands before partaking of food, or leaving the premises.
- (b) He shall not deposit in any such room any article of clothing put off during working hours.  
He shall wear suitable overalls while at work, and shall remove them before partaking of food or leaving the premises.
- (c) If he has any open cut or sore, he shall report the fact at once to the foreman, and shall not work in such a room.

No person employed in any such room or in any room in which wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedule is either carded or stored shall prepare or partake of any food therein or bring any food therein.

22. Persons engaged in collecting or removing dust shall wear the overalls as required by Regulation 11.

Such overalls shall not be taken out of the works or warehouse either for washing, repairs, or any other purpose unless they have been steeped over-night in boiling water or a disinfectant.

23. If any fan, or any other appliance for the carrying out of these regulations, is out of order, any workman becoming aware of the defect shall immediately report the fact to the foreman.

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#### *Schedule A.*

Wool or hair required to be steeped in the bale before being opened.

1. Van Mohair.
2. Persian Locks.
3. Persian or so-called Persian (including Karadi and Bagdad) if not subjected to the process of sorting or willowing.

#### *Schedule B.*

Wool or hair required to be opened either after steeping or over an efficient opening screen.

- Alpaca.
- Pelitan.
- East Indian Cashmere.
- Russian Camel Hair.
- Pekin Camel Hair.
- Persian or so-called Persian (including Karadi and Bagdad) if subjected to the process of sorting or willowing.

#### *Schedule C.*

Wool or hair not needing to be opened over an opening screen but required to be sorted over a board provided with downward draught.

All Mohair other than Van Mohair.

## NOTE.

The danger against which these regulations are directed is that of anthrax — a fatal disease affecting certain animals, which may be conveyed from them to man by the handling of wools or hairs from animals which have died of the disease. The germs of the disease (Anthrax spores) are found in the dust attaching to the wool, or in the excrement, and in the substance of the pieces of skin, and may remain active for years. In this country and Australia anthrax is rare, consequently there is little danger in handling wools from the sheep of these two countries; but in China, Persia, Turkey, Russia, the East Indies, and in many other parts of the world, the disease is common, and infected fleeces or locks (which may not differ from others in appearance) are often shipped to Great Britain. Hence in handling foreign dry wools and hair the above regulations should be carefully observed. Greasy wools are comparatively free from dust, and therefore little risk is incurred in handling them. The disease is communicated to man sometimes by breathing or swallowing the dust from these wools or hair, and sometimes by the poison lodging in some point where the skin is broken, such as a fresh scratch or cut, or a scratched pimple, or even chapped hands. This happens more readily on the uncovered parts of the body: the hand, arm, face, and most frequently of all, on the neck, owing either to infected wool rubbing against the bare skin, or to dust from such wool alighting on the raw surface, but a raw surface covered by clothing is not free from risk, for dust lodging upon the clothes may sooner or later work its way to the skin beneath. Infection may also be brought about by rubbing or scratching a pimple with hand or nail carrying the anthrax poison. Use of the nail brush, and frequent washing and bathing of the whole body, especially of the arms, neck, and head, will lessen the chance of contracting anthrax.

The first symptom of anthrax is usually a small inflamed swelling like a pimple or boil — often quite painless — which extends, and in a few days becomes black at the center, and surrounded by other “pimples.” The poison is now liable to be absorbed into the system, and will cause risk of life, which can be avoided only by prompt and effective medical treatment in the early stage, while the poison is still confined to the pimple. Hence, it is of the utmost importance that a doctor should be *at once* consulted if there is any suspicion of infection.

All the above rules went into force January 1, 1906, except Regulations 2 and 8, which became effective April 1, 1906.

## MIXING OF WOOLS FOR IMPORTATION.

A DECISION was handed down, July 10th, by Judge Colt in the U.S. Circuit Court of Massachusetts in the case of the Stone & Downer Company *v.* United States. The issue which related to the right of the importers to purposely mix white and black Iceland wool, though never so sold in the trade, for the purpose of bringing the value of the entire bale below the high duty limit, had been decided adversely to the claims of the importers by the general appraisers in G.A. 5629.<sup>1</sup> They held that the action of the collector in doubling the duty of 4 cents on the white wool and retaining the 4-cent duty on the black wool did not go far enough, and that the duty on the entire importation should have been 8 cents a pound. With this Judge Colt does not agree, though he dismisses the protest. He rules that the white wool having been changed in condition by mixing it with the black for the purpose of evading the duty, should pay a 14-cent duty, double that to which it would otherwise be subject; and that the black wool should pay the 4-cent duty. Had it not been for paragraph 356, the right of the importers to mix the wools, thereby securing the lowest classification, would have been upheld under Sect. 2912 of the Revised Statutes. The full text of the decision is as follows:

(T.D. 27515.)

*Mixed wools.*STONE & DOWNER COMPANY *v.* UNITED STATES.

U.S. Circuit Court, District of Massachusetts. July 10, 1906.  
No. 44 (suit 1598).

1. MIXED WOOLS—"CHANGE IN CONDITION." Where white and black Iceland wools, which commercially have always been dealt in and imported separately, have, with the intention of obtaining a lower rate of duty, been mixed together in the same bale, but without being subjected to any other alteration by chemical or mechanical means, they are "changed in . . . condition," within the meaning of paragraph 356, tariff act of 1897, even though they can afterwards be restored to their original state.
2. SAME—SAME—DOUBLE DUTY. White and black wools were changed in condition by mixing them together in the same bale for the purpose of making the combination subject to the duty which would be applicable to the black wool if imported separately. Held that, as to the white wool, the change was within the meaning of paragraph 356, tariff act of 1897, "for the purpose of evading the duty to which it would otherwise be subject," and that under the further provision in the same paragraph it is therefore liable to "twice the duty to which it would otherwise be subject;" but not so as to the black wool, inasmuch as it is subject to the same rate of duty whether classified according to its mixed or to its original condition.
3. SAME—SAME—SAME. Where wool has been changed for the purpose of evading duty, and as provided in paragraph 356, tariff act of 1897, becomes liable to "twice the duty to which it would otherwise be subject," the duty which is thus doubled is that which would have been applicable if the wool had been imported in its original condition.

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<sup>1</sup>See Bulletin, Vol. 34, page 176, for text of decision and argument of counsel.—ED.

4. SAME — SAME — AVERAGE AGGREGATE VALUE. Sect. 2912, Revised Statutes, providing, as to wool of different qualities imported in the same package, that its classification shall be determined according to the "average aggregate value of the contents" of the package, does not apply to wools which within the meaning of paragraph 356, tariff act of 1897, have been changed in condition for the purpose of evading duty.

On application for review of a decision of the Board of United States General Appraisers.

For decision below see G.A. 5629 (T.D. 25168), which affirmed the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of Boston.

*COLT, Circuit Judge:* The merchandise in this case consisted of one bale of Iceland wool, entered at the port of Boston, May 4, 1903. The bale contained 40 pounds of white Iceland wool and 40 pounds of gray or black Iceland wool mixed together.

The wool was classified as third-class wool, and the 40 pounds of white wool were valued at 6½d. or over 12 cents per pound, and the 40 pounds of black wool at 5d. or less than 12 cents per pound, making the aggregate value of the contents of the bale 5¾d. per pound or less than 12 cents per pound. The collector assessed a double duty of 8 cents per pound upon the white wool and a duty of 4 cents per pound upon the black wool. The Board of General Appraisers held that the entire contents of the bale was subject to a double duty of 8 cents per pound. The importers claim that no portion of the wool is subject to a double duty, and that the proper duty is 4 cents per pound.

The evidence shows that in trade and commerce white Iceland wool and black Iceland wool are never mixed together, but are sold in separate bales, and that they have been hitherto imported into this country in separate bales; and, further, that the importers purposely mixed this wool in order to test their right to do so under Sect. 2912 of the Revised Statutes.

The question of the proper duty upon this wool involves the consideration of paragraphs 356, 358, and 359 of the tariff act of 1897 (30 Stat., 183) and Sect. 2912 of the Revised Statutes.

PAR. 356. The duty upon wool of the sheep . . . which shall be changed in its character or condition for the purpose of evading the duty . . . shall be twice the duty to which it would be otherwise subject.

PAR. 358. On wools of the third class . . . the value whereof shall be 12 cents or less per pound, the duty shall be 4 cents per pound.

PAR. 359. On wools of the third class . . . the value whereof shall exceed 12 cents per pound, the duty shall be 7 cents per pound.

SECT. 2912. When wool of different qualities is imported in the same bale, bag, or package, it shall be appraised by the appraiser, to determine the rate of duty to which it shall be subjected, at the average aggregate value of the contents of the bale, bag, or package.

If this wool had been imported in separate bales, the white wool would have been classified under paragraph 359, since its value exceeds 12 cents per pound, thereby making the rate of duty 7 cents per pound; and the black wool would have been classified under paragraph 358, since its value is less than 12 cents per pound, thereby making the rate of duty 4 cents per



pound. If, however, as contended by the importers, the proper classification of this wool is under Sect. 2912 as "wool of different qualities imported in the same bale," then, since "the average aggregate value of the contents of the same bale" is less than 12 cents per pound, the entire contents of the bale is only subject to a duty of 4 cents per pound under paragraph 358. As to the white wool, the difference in the duty between these two classifications is 3 cents per pound, or the difference between 7 cents per pound and 4 cents per pound; while as to the black wool there is no difference in the duty, since this wool, under both classifications, is subject to the lowest rate of duty, namely, 4 cents per pound.

If it were not for paragraph 356 this wool would be properly classified under Sect. 2912 and paragraph 358, as contended by the petitioners, although it had been mixed together for the purpose of obtaining a lower rate of duty on the white wool, because importers may adjust themselves to the tariff laws as framed by Congress, and, in the absence of any deception, they have the right to obtain the lowest classification for their goods. *Magone v. Luckemeyer* (139 U.S. 612); *Seeberger v. Farwell* (*ib.*, 608); *Merritt v. Welsh* (104 *id.*, 694, 707); *United States v. Schoverling* (146 *id.*, 76); *Robertson v. Gerdan* (132 *id.*, 454).

The question in this case, therefore, resolves itself into the inquiry whether, in view of paragraph 356, importers can mix together in one bale two different qualities of wool, which are always bought and sold separately, or in an unmixed condition, in the markets of the world, for the purpose of obtaining a lower classification on the wool of superior quality, and hence a lower rate of duty. In other words, does paragraph 356 apply to this wool upon the state of facts here presented, and, if it does apply, what is the proper classification of this wool and the rate of duty to which it is subject?

Paragraph 356 provides that when wool is "changed in its character or condition for the purpose of evading the duty" it shall pay twice the duty "to which it would be otherwise subject." That the "condition" of this wool has been "changed" within the meaning and intent of this provision seems free from doubt. White Iceland wool and black Iceland wool mixed together are not in the same condition either actually or commercially as when each is in a separate state. The fact that they may be afterwards restored to their original condition does not make them any the less in a changed condition while they are in a mixed state. Changed condition does not mean that the wool must have been colored or dyed, or subjected to some mechanical or chemical change in order to disguise its quality or character. These words are used in a general sense, and, when read in connection with what follows in this paragraph, were plainly intended to cover any alteration in the state or condition of the wool which is made for the purpose of having it classified under a

different paragraph of the tariff act, and thereby obtaining a lower rate of duty. It is clear, therefore, that the white wool comes within the terms of paragraph 356, since it was changed in its condition for the purpose of evading the duty to which it "would be otherwise subject"—that is, it was changed in its condition by mixing black wool with it for the purpose of having it classified under Sect. 2912 and paragraph 358, whereby it would only be subject to a duty of 4 cents per pound, instead of having it classified under paragraph 359, in which case it would be subject to a duty of 7 cents per pound.

With respect to the black wool, however, it does not come within the terms of paragraph 356, because, although it was changed in its condition by mixing white wool with it, it was not so changed "for the purpose of evading the duty to which it would be otherwise subject," since it is subject to the same duty of 4 cents per pound whether it is classified in its mixed condition under Sect. 2912 and paragraph 358, or in its separate condition under paragraph 358.

Holding that the white wool comes within the provisions of paragraph 356, and is therefore subject to double duty, the question remains, How shall this wool be classified, and what is the rate of duty to which it is subject? Is it to be classified under Sect. 2912 and paragraph 358, and subjected to a duty of 4 cents per pound, and then to a double duty of 8 cents per pound under paragraph 356; or is it to be classified under paragraph 359, and subjected to a duty of 7 cents per pound, and then to a double duty of 14 cents per pound under paragraph 356? It may here be observed, as already noted, that the collector assessed a double duty of 8 cents a pound on the white wool, and that the Board of General Appraisers held that the entire contents of the bale was subject to a double duty of 8 cents a pound.

The proper classification and duty upon this white wool seem clear upon reading paragraph 356. The language is, "the duty upon wool . . . shall be twice the duty to which it would be otherwise subject." This means that the wool is to be classified as if it had not been changed in condition, and then pay double duty under this classification; in no other way can the wool be made to pay "twice the duty to which it would be otherwise subject." In other words, the white wool having been changed in condition for the purpose of evading the duty to which it would be otherwise subject, it is taken out from Sect. 2912, and is to be classified as if it were imported in its original condition, namely, under paragraph 359, and then made to pay a double duty of 14 cents per pound under paragraph 356.

This result does not lead to any conflict or inconsistency between Sect. 2912 and paragraph 356. Sect. 2912 applies to imports of different qualities of wool in the same bale in which it does not appear that the wool was mixed for the purpose of obtaining a lower rate of duty. For example, if white and

black Iceland wool in a mixed condition were regularly bought and sold as an article of commerce in the markets of the world, then this bale would be properly classified under Sect. 2912, since it could not then be said that it was mixed by the importers for the purpose of obtaining a lower rate of duty. It is only where this purpose is shown, as in the present case, that the wool cannot be classified under Sect. 2912.

This construction of paragraph 356 is in accord with the decision of the Supreme Court in *Patton v. United States* (159 U.S. 500), where the merchandise was "wool tops" which had been broken into small pieces for the purpose of having them classified as "wool waste" and thus evading the higher rate of duty.

The merchandise was entered as "wool waste" under Schedule K of the tariff act of 1883, and a duty of 10 cents per pound was assessed and paid. Subsequently, under other paragraphs of the tariff act of 1883, the collector imposed a duty of 30 cents per pound, and then doubled this duty upon the ground that the wool had been changed in its character or condition for the purpose of evading the duty. This made the aggregate duty 60 cents per pound. The United States brought suit to recover the difference between the amount paid upon the entry and the duty subsequently imposed by the collector. Upon trial before a jury, the Court, among other things, charged that the importation in question could not be considered as wool waste, as it did not consist of refuse or broken particles thrown off in the process of manufacture, and was made intentionally by tearing up what are called "wool tops." The jury found a general verdict for the United States, and judgment was entered accordingly. Upon writ of error this judgment was affirmed, first by the circuit court and then by the Supreme Court. In its opinion the Supreme Court said:

Although it was submitted as a separate question to the jury, the testimony was practically undisputed that the articles in question were merchantable tops broken up for the purpose of changing their character or condition from that of tops to that of waste, and that it was done for the purpose of evading the duty to which the wool in the form of tops would be subject on importation, or at least to which the importer believed it would be liable. If such change were made, and made for this purpose, it would make no difference whether the article thus produced was known commercially as waste or not. Assuming that the product would be waste, it would be waste produced by a process which Congress had refused to recognize, and the fact that the classification of the article was thereby changed would not relieve it from the double duty which Congress had imposed upon wool whose character or condition had been changed (159 U.S. 506, 507).

In *Patton v. United States*, as in the case at bar, the importers relied upon *Merritt v. Welsh* (104 U.S. 694) and *Seeberger v. Farwell* (139 *id.*, 608). In distinguishing those cases the Supreme Court said:

In those cases, however, there was no such provision applicable to sugars or to woolen cloths as exists in this case providing that where wool unmanu-

factured shall be changed in its character or condition for the purpose of evading duty a double duty shall be imposed. The object of this legislation seems to have been to make that unlawful with respect to raw wools which had been held to be legitimate with respect to other articles (159 U.S. 508).

The decision of the Board of General Appraisers overruling the petitioners' protest is affirmed.

### THE PAYNE CUSTOMS ADMINISTRATIVE BILL.

THE following is the text of the Payne bill, H.R. No. 19750, making certain changes in the customs administrative law, which has been passed by the House of Representatives and is now pending in the Senate. In Sect. 5 the only changes are in the declaration of the owner in cases where merchandise has been purchased, the words "by purchase" being inserted after the words, "I am the owner," and the word "specifies" being changed to "specify" to make the sentence grammatically correct. The remainder of the bill is as follows:

SECT. 7. That the owner, consignee, or agent of any imported merchandise which has been actually purchased may, at the time when he shall make and verify his written entry of such merchandise, but not afterwards, make such addition in the entry or such deduction therefrom to the cost or value given in the invoice or *pro forma* invoice, or statement in form of an invoice, which he shall produce with his entry, as in his opinion may raise or lower the same to the actual market value or wholesale price of such merchandise at the time of exportation to the United States, in the principal markets of the country from which the same has been imported; but no such addition or deduction shall be made upon entry to the invoice value of any imported merchandise obtained otherwise than by actual purchase; and the collector within whose district any merchandise may be imported or entered, whether the same has been actually purchased or procured otherwise than by purchase, shall cause the actual market value or wholesale price of such merchandise to be appraised; and if the appraised value of any article of imported merchandise subject to an ad valorem duty, or to a duty based upon or regulated in any manner by the value thereof, shall exceed the value declared in the entry by more than 5 per centum, there shall be levied, collected, and paid, in addition to the duties imposed by law on such merchandise, an additional duty of 1 per centum of the total appraised value thereof for each 1 per centum that such appraised value exceeds the value declared in the entry, but the additional duties shall only apply to the particular



article or articles in each invoice that are so undervalued, and shall not be imposed upon any article upon which the amount of duty imposed by law upon the appraised value does not exceed the amount of duty that would be imposed by law upon the entered value, and shall be limited to 100 per centum of the appraised value of such article or articles. Such additional duties shall not be construed to be penal, and shall not be remitted, nor payment thereof in any way avoided, except in cases arising from a manifest clerical error, nor shall they be refunded in case of exportation of the merchandise, or on any other account, nor shall they be subject to the benefit of drawback: *Provided*, That if the appraised value of any merchandise shall exceed the value declared in the entry by more than 100 per centum, except when arising from a manifest clerical error, such entry shall be held to be presumptively fraudulent, and the collector of customs shall seize such merchandise and proceed as in case of forfeiture for violation of the customs laws, and in any legal proceeding that may result from such seizure, the undervaluation as shown by the appraisal shall be presumptive evidence of fraud, and the burden of proof shall be on the claimant to rebut the same and forfeiture shall be adjudged, unless he shall rebut such presumption of fraudulent intent by sufficient evidence. The forfeiture provided for in this section shall apply to the whole of the merchandise or the value thereof in the case or package containing the particular article or articles in each invoice which are undervalued: *Provided further*, That all additional duties, penalties, or forfeitures applicable to merchandise entered by a duly certified invoice shall be alike applicable to merchandise entered by a *pro forma* invoice, or statement in the form of an invoice, and no forfeiture or disability of any kind, incurred under the provisions of this section, shall be remitted or mitigated by the Secretary of the Treasury. The duty shall not, however, be assessed in any case upon an amount less than the entered value.

SECT. 12. That there shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, nine general appraisers of merchandise, each of whom shall receive a salary of \$7,000 a year. Not more than five of such general appraisers shall be appointed from the same political party. They shall not be engaged in any other business, avocation, or employment, and may be removed from office at any time by the President only for inefficiency, mental or physical incapacity, neglect of duty, or malfeasance in office. They shall be employed at such ports and within such territorial limits as the Secretary of the Treasury may from time to time prescribe, and are hereby authorized to exercise the powers and duties devolved upon them by this act and to exercise, under the general direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, such other supervision over appraisements and classifications, for duty, of imported merchandise as may be

needful to secure lawful and uniform appraisements and classifications at the several ports. Three of the general appraisers shall be on duty as a board of general appraisers daily (except Sunday and legal holidays) at the port of New York, during the business hours prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, at which port a place for samples shall be provided, under such rules and regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may from time to time prescribe, which shall include rules as to the classes of articles to be deposited, the time of their retention, and as to their disposition, which place of samples shall be under the immediate control and direction of the Board of General Appraisers on duty at said port.

SECT. 13. That the appraiser shall revise and correct the reports of the assistant appraisers as he may judge proper, and the appraiser, or, at ports where there is no appraiser, the person acting as such, shall report to the collector his decision as to the value of the merchandise appraised. At ports where there is no appraiser, the certificate of the customs officer, to whom is committed the estimating and collection of duties, of the dutiable value of any merchandise required to be appraised shall be deemed and taken to be the appraisement of such merchandise. If the collector shall deem the appraisement of any imported merchandise too low he may, within thirty days thereafter, order a re-appraisement, which shall be made by one of the general appraisers, or, if the importer, owner, agent, or consignee of such merchandise shall be dissatisfied with the appraisement thereof, and shall have complied with the requirements of law with respect to the entry and appraisement of merchandise, he may, within two days thereafter, give notice to the collector, in writing, of such dissatisfaction, on receipt of which the collector shall at once direct a re-appraisement of such merchandise by one of the general appraisers. The decision of the appraiser, or person acting as such (in cases where no objection is made thereto, either by the collector or by the importer, owner, consignee, or agent), or of the general appraiser in cases of re-appraisement, shall be final and conclusive as to the dutiable value of such merchandise against all parties interested therein, unless the importer, owner, consignee, or agent of the merchandise shall be dissatisfied with such decision, and shall, within two days thereafter, give notice to the collector in writing of such dissatisfaction, or unless the collector shall deem the appraisement of the merchandise too low, in either case the collector shall within thirty days thereafter transmit the invoice and all the papers appertaining thereto to the board of three general appraisers, which shall be on duty at the port of New York, or to a board of three general appraisers who may be designated by the Secretary of the Treasury for such duty at that port or at any other port, which board shall examine and decide the case thus submitted, and their decision, or that of a majority of them, shall be final

and conclusive as to the dutiable value of such merchandise against all parties interested therein, and the collector or the person acting as such shall ascertain, fix, and liquidate the rate and amount of duties to be paid on such merchandise, and the dutiable costs and charges thereon, according to law.

SECT. 14. That the decision of the collector as to the rate and amount of duties chargeable upon imported merchandise, including all dutiable costs and charges, and as to all fees and exactions of whatever character (except duties on tonnage), shall be final and conclusive against all persons interested therein, unless the owner, importer, consignee, or agent of such merchandise, or the person paying such fees, charges, and exactions other than duties, shall, within ten days after but not before such ascertainment and liquidation of duties, as well in cases of merchandise entered in bond as for consumption or within ten days after the payment of such fees, charges, and exactions, if dissatisfied with such decision, give notice in writing to the collector, setting forth therein distinctly and specifically, and in respect to each entry or payment, the reasons for his objections thereto, and if the merchandise is entered for consumption shall pay the full amount of the duties and charges ascertained to be due thereon. Upon such notice and payment the collector shall transmit the invoice and all the papers and exhibits connected therewith to the board of three general appraisers, which shall be on duty at the port of New York, or to a board of three general appraisers who may be designated by the Secretary of the Treasury for such duty at that port or at any other port, which board shall examine and decide the case thus submitted, and their decision, or that of a majority of them, shall be final and conclusive upon all persons interested therein, and the record shall be transmitted to the proper collector or person acting as such, who shall liquidate the entry accordingly, except in cases where an application shall be filed in the Circuit Court within the time and in the manner provided for in Sect. 15 of this act: *Provided, however,* That the board of three general appraisers, or a majority of them, who decided the case may, upon motion of either party, within thirty days from the date of the receipt of their decision by the collector, grant a rehearing of said case when, in their opinion, the ends of justice may require it. The general board of nine general appraisers shall have power to establish from time to time such reasonable rules of practice not inconsistent with law as may be deemed necessary for the conduct of its proceedings and of the proceedings of the said boards of three general appraisers.

SECT. 15. That if the owner, importer, consignee, or agent of any imported merchandise, or the collector, or the Secretary of the Treasury, shall be dissatisfied with the decision of the Board of General Appraisers, as provided for in Sect. 14 of this act, as to the construction of the law and the facts respecting

the classification of such merchandise and the rate of duty imposed thereon under such classification, they, or either of them, may, within thirty days next after such decision, and not afterwards, apply to the Circuit Court of the United States within the district in which the matter arises for a review of the questions of law and fact involved in such decision. Such application shall be made by filing in the office of the clerk of said circuit court a concise statement of the errors of law and fact complained of, and a copy of such statement shall be served on the collector, or on the importer, owner, consignee, or agent, as the case may be. Thereupon the Court shall order the Board of Appraisers to return to said circuit court the record and the evidence taken by them, together with the certified statement of the facts involved in the case, and their decisions thereon; and all the evidence taken by and before said appraisers shall be competent evidence before said circuit court. The said circuit court is further vested with the power, on the hearing of any appeal taken from the decision of a board of three general appraisers, to order said board to take additional testimony as to any particular fact or issue in dispute, and return the same to said court as soon as convenient, whenever the said court shall be of opinion that the ends of justice will be best subserved by this course of procedure. In other respects the parties litigant shall be required to introduce all of their evidence before the said Board of General Appraisers prior to its decision of the case. Such further evidence, with the aforesaid returns, shall constitute the record upon which said circuit court shall give priority to and proceed to hear and determine the questions of law and fact involved in such decision, respecting the classification of such merchandise and the rate of duty imposed thereon under such classification, and the decision of such court shall be final, and the proper collector, or person acting as such, shall liquidate the entry accordingly, unless either party shall within thirty days after the rendition of such decision appeal to the Circuit Court of Appeals. The said Circuit Court of Appeals shall give priority to and proceed to hear and determine the questions involved in such decision, and the decision of said Circuit Court of Appeals shall be final and the proper collector or other person acting as such shall liquidate the entry accordingly, unless said decision is reviewed by the Supreme Court of the United States in any of the ways provided by the act approved March third, eighteen hundred and ninety-one, entitled "An act to establish circuit courts of appeals, and to define and regulate in certain cases the jurisdiction of the courts of the United States, and for other purposes." Said Supreme Court shall have jurisdiction and power to review such decision, and shall give priority to such cases, and may affirm, modify, or reverse such decision of such circuit court of appeals, and remand the case with such orders as may seem to it proper in the premises, which shall be executed



accordingly. All final judgments, when in favor of the importer, shall be satisfied and paid by the Secretary of the Treasury from the permanent indefinite appropriation provided for in Sect. 23 of this act. For the purposes of this section the Circuit Courts of the United States shall be deemed always open, and said circuit courts, respectively, may establish, and from time to time alter, rules and regulations not inconsistent herewith for the procedure in such cases as they shall deem proper.

### TEXTILE SCHOOL COMMENCEMENTS.

THE commencement exercises of the Philadelphia Textile School, which is a part of the Pennsylvania Museum and School of Industrial Art, were held on the evening of June 7, in the Academy of Music. Addresses were made by Mayor John Weaver, President Theodore C. Search, and Prof. Erastus G. Smith, of Beloit College, the latter taking for his subject "Some Relations of Industry to Pure Scientific Research."

The report of Principal Leslie W. Miller showed that, because of the more adequate provision for special courses, especially in silk, wool, and cotton manufacture, there was a certain, though not very marked, increase the past year in the number of students pursuing these special courses instead of working for a diploma. This tendency to specialize is not "regarded as indicating any disposition to minimize or render less thorough such general and disciplinary work as is recognized as essential in any and every department of the school, but only as a part of the undoubted and unmistakable movement in present-day education in the direction of the recognition of equivalents in individual aims if pursued with equal thoroughness, as distinguished from uniformity in the details of a curriculum."

Principal Miller complains — as did former Principal Crosby of the Lowell Textile School — that "the principal drawback with which they have to contend is the inadequate preparation in the common English branches, and especially the inability to use their own language with anything like facility, which characterizes a considerable part of the body of the students on their entrance."

The list of graduates and prize-winners was as follows:

**DIPLOMAS, REGULAR TEXTILE COURSE.** — Robert E. Brooke, James B. Cameron, John E. Fite, Charles A. Fox, Hans H. Hoermann, Nelson J. Kershaw, Howard E. Mancell, Penrose Markley, Casimir J. Mekszas, Charles T. Reh fuss, Louis H. Talcott.

**CHEMISTRY AND DYEING COURSE.** — Joseph Collingwood, Lawrence A. Stead.

**PRIZES.** — The Theodore C. Search Gold Medal: For highest honor, regular course, third year. Awarded to Louis H. Talcott.

Associate Committee of Women's Prize: \$10. For best executed work in Jacquard design, third year. Awarded to Casimir J. Mekszas. Honorable mention to Robert E. Brooke.

The Miss Clyde Prize: \$10. For best executed work in Jacquard design, second year. Awarded to Caryl A. Grammer.

Mrs. Frank K. Hipple Prize: \$10. For best special executed work in Jacquard design. Awarded to Laurence Pegram.

The Mrs. Thomas Roberts Prize: \$10. For general excellence in color, harmony, and design, second year. Awarded to George N. Sidman.

The Elizabeth C. Roberts Prize: \$10. For best work in color, harmony, and design, first year. Awarded to Percy A. Smith. Honorable mention to Joseph E. Chappatte.

The "Textile World Record" Gold Medal: For general excellence and thesis, Chemistry and Dyeing Course. Awarded to John C. Tebbetts, Jr.

New England Cotton Manufacturers' Association Medal: For general excellence. Regular Course, third year. Awarded to Louis H. Talcott.

A Special Prize of \$10 from a Friend of the School. Awarded to Robert E. Brooke, second in general excellence.

"Chemical Trade Review" and "Dyer's Trade Journal" Prize—Chemical Balance: For best seminar work in chemistry. Awarded to James E. Graham. Honorable mention to John C. Tebbetts, Jr.

Ab. Kirschbaum & Co. Scholarship: For highest rating in first year regular course. Awarded to Charles R. Paul. Honorable mention to Carl F. Schlegel, Arthur Wells, George W. Fiss.

Prize Scholarships for School Year 1905-1906: Awarded to Walter F. Klemer, James E. Graham, Frederic G. Kennedy (evening class), Harry Hodgson (evening class). Honorable mention, Caryl A. Grammer, Edward T. Switzer, George N. Sidman.

Certificates were awarded as follows:

Second Year. Regular Day Class. — Joel R. Baker, Fred S. Brewster, Myron S. Freeman, Joseph Gegauff, Jr., Caryl A. Grammer, Walter F. Klemer, George W. Ott, Samuel P. Ruff, Jr., George N. Sidman, John N. Stevens, Edward T. Switzer, John P. J. Wood.

Second Year Silk Class, Day. — Harry C. Licking.

Second Year Cotton Class, Day. — Alfred W. Haywood, Jr., Henry T. Hunter, Melville B. Melendy, Eugene Munger, Alan V. Young.

Second Year Wool Class, Day. — Charles B. Ketcham, Benjamin B. Underhill, Orrin A. White.

Second Year Chemistry and Dyeing Class, Day. — Robert K. Eaton, Irving A. Firth, James E. Graham, John C. Tebbetts, Jr., Rollin H. Wiggin.

Third Year Regular Class, Evening. — Joseph P. Beutel,

Aloysius J. Bruton, George B. Buchanan, Thomas E. Guerin, George Holden, George Morkin, Donald Simpson, James Sutcliffe.

Third Year Chemistry, Evening. — Edward J. Gallagher, Jr.

Third Year Chemistry and Dyeing, Evening. — John A. Dorfner, T. E. Holden, Franklin P. Knipe, William H. Scholler.

PARTIAL COURSES (Evening Class), Jacquard Design, Two Years. — Jacob R. Fox, Jr., Robert J. McCuen, Archibald Neill, Jr.

Worsted Yarn Manufacture, One Year. — Charles Brutsche, Fred Fischer, Clarence C. Keever, Irving Thomas.

The seventh commencement exercises of the Lowell Textile School were held June 2. Addresses were made by Governor Curtis Guild, Lieutenant-Governor Eben S. Draper, the Hon. George H. Martin, secretary of the State Board of Education, and the Hon. John N. Cole, Speaker of the Massachusetts House of Representatives.

Mr. Frederick A. Flather, treasurer of the Boott Mills, presented the New England Cotton Manufacturers' medal for excellence in cotton studies to Herbert C. Wood, of Lowell.

The following theses were read:

"Notes on the Production of a Cotton Suiting," by Herbert A. Currier; "The Functions of the Various Parts of a Double Cylinder 4 Licker-in Worsted Card," by Roy H. Bradford; "The Effect of the Permanent Hardness of Water upon the Application of the Artificial Dyestuffs," by William H. Wightman.

President Cumnock presented the diplomas and Secretary Charles H. Eames announced the following awards:

Highest scholarships in first year chemistry, Leonard S. Farr, Albert F. Musgrave; in second year chemistry, Course IV., Chester J. Farmer, George W. Hathorn; in second year chemistry for students not taking Course IV., James G. Coman; best thesis, Frank E. Fleming.

Those receiving diplomas and certificates in the several departments of the school, with the subjects of their theses, are as follows:

COTTON, DIPLOMAS. — "Notes on the Production of a Cotton Suiting," Herbert A. Currier, Somerville; "A Comparison of Strength between Combed and Carded Yarns," Frank M. Curtis, Roxbury; "Notes and Plans of an Economic Layout for a Print Cloth Mill," Herbert C. Wood, Lowell. Certificates: "A Comparison of Strength between Yarns made with a Short and a Long Card Draft," Thomas F. Hintze, Syracuse, N.Y.; "A Comparison of Strength between Single and Ply Yarns," John W. Lane, Wakefield; "Notes on the Production of Waste Yarns," William H. McDonnell, South Boston.

WOOLEN AND WORSTED, DIPLOMAS. — "The Functions of the

Various Parts of a Double Cylinder 4 Licker-in Worsted Card," Charles H. Avery, Newtonville (with Roy H. Bradford, Lowell); "Actual versus Theoretical Draft in Gilling and Drawing," Arthur J. Hennigan, Dorchester (with Guy C. Swan, Lawrence); "A Comparison of Cap, Flyer and Ring Spun Yarns." Arthur C. Varnum, Lowell (with Charles R. Church, Lowell). Certificates: "Experiment on a Woolen Card using Strippers as Workers," George L. Gahm, Jamaica Plain, and H. W. Hildreth, Westford; Charles R. Church, thesis with Arthur C. Varnum.

CHEMISTRY AND DYEING, DIPLOMAS. — "The Effect of Potassium Bichromate on Mordant Acid Colors as Regards their Fastness to Light," Edward E. Cole, Haverhill; "Tendering of Cotton Fibers Dyed with Sulphur Blacks, Its Cause and Prevention," Frank E. Fleming, Lowell; "The Effects of the Permanent Hardness of Water upon the Application of Artificial Dyestuffs," William H. Wightman, Lawrence. Certificate (Chemistry): "A Study of Wool with the Ultimate Object of Determining Its Comparative Action toward Sodium and Potassium Compounds," Guy H. Newcomb, Fitchburg.

DESIGNING, DIPLOMAS. — "Reversible and Multiple Weaves as Applied to Dress Fabrics," Charles W. Churchill, Lowell. Designing and Weaving Certificate: "The Use and Abuse of the Double Plain Weave in Textile Design," Alexander C. Stohn, Roslindale; "The Design and Construction of Worsted and Union Overcoatings," Clarence Le B. Kent, Lawrence. Post Graduate Designing and Weaving, Certificate: "The Advantages of the Metric System for Textile Calculations, Isabel H. Reynolds, North Andover. Weaving, Certificate: Charles B. Woodruff, Boston. Decorative Art, Certificate: "A Corner of a Lace Curtain, Sadie A. Gillon, Lowell.

Certificates in the evening classes were awarded May 9, as follows:

COURSE I., 3 years, Cotton Spinning. — Paul W. Abbott, William A. Pedler.

COURSE I., 2 years, Cotton Spinning. — Frank Dodge, Magnus Inberg, James H. Maguire, Peter J. McLaughlin, John M. Pittendreigh, Harry E. Whitcomb.

COURSE II. (a), 1 year, Woolen Spinning. — Andrew Dickson, John Howard, Cornelius D. Murphy, Francis G. Richards.

COURSE II. (b), 2 years, Worsted Spinning. — Elias B. Armstrong, William G. Brown, Albert N. Morton.

COURSE III., Post Graduate Designing. — Herbert Bake, James P. Brown, Hugo P. Dick, Benjamin C. Dimlick, Emil M. Frank, Andrew Molloy, Clarence W. Skinner, Arthur Smith, George A. Smith, William E. Smith, William H. Stopherd.

COURSE III., 3 years, Designing. — John J. Brouder, Joseph W. Burnham, Benjamin Duce, Carl Hoessler, Jr., August W. Laffert, Joseph E. McCarthy, Harry Michelmores, Ernest H. Nelson.



COURSE IV., 4 years, Chemistry and Dyeing. — John T. Eyers, Thomas E. Kidd, David A. O'Brien.

COURSE V., 2 years, Weaving. — John McC. Fulton, Harold Hutton, Ernest A. Johnson, George J. Schubert.

COURSE V., 1 year, Cotton Weaving. — Louis H. Amiot, Joseph H. Burgess, Robert B. Gregson, George Senior, Arthur Smith.

COURSE V., 1 year, Woolen and Worsted Weaving. — Wilmont V. Burnham, William Haigh, John M. Hutton, John McLay, Harry A. Vogt.

COURSE VI., 2 years, Mechanics and Electricity. — Henry E. Hartwell, Christian E. Pihl, Timothy H. Reardon, Eugene A. Reynolds, Walter Rushworth, John R. Sharpe, Byron H. Sheppard.

COURSE VII., 1 year, Finishing. — George W. Ellis, Patrick E. Silk, James J. Ward, William Walker, Jr.

During the year a complete equipment of French spinning machinery has been installed in the woolen and worsted department and will be ready for operation at the beginning of the new term, September 25. The wool scouring plant has been so increased that all varieties of wool can now be scoured. With the additions to the finishing department the school is now able to make and properly finish woolen and worsted fabrics. By the opening of the fall term the industrial chemistry department will occupy a room specially constructed for its needs. During the summer additional space in the basement of Kitson Hall was prepared, which will be used for the mechanical drawing, machine shop, students' rooms, and later for cotton finishing.

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The exercises of the New Bedford Textile School occurred on the evening of June 1. Addresses were made by William E. Hatch, president of the school corporation, Lieutenant-Governor Eben S. Draper, and Professor Walter Ballou Jacobs, of Brown University. The latter took for his topic, "All Life is a Process of Education."

The New England Cotton Manufacturers' Association's medal for the highest standing during the three years' course was awarded to Thomas W. Williamson.

The following were the recipients of diplomas and certificates:

GENERAL COTTON MANUFACTURING COURSE.<sup>1</sup> — Thomas W. Williamson.

COTTON CARDING AND SPINNING COURSE.<sup>1</sup> — Richard S. DeMartin and Walton Hall, Jr.

LATCH NEEDLE UNDERWEAR KNITTING COURSE.<sup>1</sup> — Elmer L. Freeman and John J. O'Neil.

COTTON CARDING AND SPINNING COURSE.<sup>2</sup> — George Winterbottom.

DESIGNERS' COURSE.<sup>2</sup> — Jim Green.

COTTON PICKING, CARDING AND COMBING.<sup>3</sup> — Bruce Cary,

Henry Denoyers, Fergus Ferguson, John Hagarty, Herbert Higgins, Harold D. Slocum, Walter Whitehead, and Ralph B. Wilson.

RING SPINNING.<sup>3</sup> — Levi Coop, Miles A. Fay, Richard Gilmore, Philip Curtis Holmes, Peter LeBel, Richard H. March, and William Smalley.

MULE SPINNING.<sup>3</sup> — Joseph LaBelle, Jr., James A. Layfield, Joseph Waldron.

COTTON SAMPLING.<sup>3</sup> — James Arnold, John C. Astley, George LeR. Bradford, Joseph T. Bradley, Walter H. Bradley, Charles Burgess, Obadiah Butler, Maurice L. Chase, Fred Dickson, H. C. Greenlaw, Clifton N. Hatch, Henry T. Howard, Jr., James V. Kane, Clarence W. Mason, Howard F. Mayhew, Charles J. Noyer, William Pearson, Frank H. Perry, Wallace E. Russell, James H. Simpson, Carlton W. Smith, Daniel J. Sullivan, Walter H. Underdown, John C. Whittle.

WARP PREPARATION.<sup>3</sup> — John C. Astley, Maxime Bastien, Joseph Francis, Philip C. Holmes, James V. Kane, John Marr, John Parkinson, Charles Rafferty, James A. Riley, Jr., John T. Wilkinson.

PLAIN WEAVING AND FIXING.<sup>3</sup> — William Baines, George R. Bedford, John Crowther, John A. W. Cryer, Lewis Hamer, Robert Jackson, Simon Kenyon, Frank A. Nemece, Norbert Nemece, William Ramsden, Andrew Rog, Albert Rushworth, Samuel Thompson, David Watson.

FANCY WEAVING AND FIXING.<sup>3</sup> — Chester H. Bedford, Alonzo C. Blossom, Robert Davis, James Downhill, James H. Duerden, Walter Gardner, Harry Green, Michael Haczela, George Hand, Albert E. Harwood, Stephen Hebdon, Albert Kay, John J. McAuliffe, Charles Rafferty, Wilfrid H. Smethurst, Joseph Wilkinson.

FRENCH CLASS IN WEAVING AND FIXING.<sup>3</sup> — Aurele Bamsiell, Louis Barbieri, Louis Belanger, Phillip Brodeur, Adelard Houle, Joseph Lamontagne, Silioane Leclerc, Ferdinand Legault.

DESIGNING.<sup>3</sup> — William Acomb, Nathaniel W. Carter, J. A. LaChapelle, John Hayhurst, Lawrence C. Maud, Joseph Pedro, Victor O. B. Slater, Thomas Smith, Francis Warrington.

YARN MILL ARITHMETIC.<sup>3</sup> — Edward F. Benoit, James Ellis, Gabriel Green, Fred Johnson, Joseph F. Jollings, Philip McCarthy, Thomas F. Quinlan, Samuel Summer, Thomas B. Taber, Frederick Taylor, James H. Wilson.

CHEMISTRY AND DYEING.<sup>3</sup> — James F. Rockett.

MECHANICS AND DRAWING.<sup>3</sup> — Hermann H. Brunner, John C. Cabral, Lawrence Cabral, Lawrence J. Crowell, Charles F. Dvorak, Rudolph Dvorak, Joseph Eccleston, Louis R. Gurney, Chadwick Hulton, Harry Hulton, Robert Lindsay, Earle E. Reed, Harold A. Washburn, Oswald A. Washburn, Joseph Webster, Edwin T. Yates.

<sup>1</sup> Day diploma course.    <sup>2</sup> Evening diploma course.    <sup>3</sup> Evening certificate course.

During the past year the new addition, with a frontage of sixty feet and a depth of seventy-two feet, has been completed, giving the school an aggregate floor space of approximately 46,600 square feet. An entirely new power plant with the latest improved boilers, engines, and generators is being installed. The lighting of the school will be done by the plant, and electricity will drive the machinery.

The Bradford Durfee Textile School at Fall River graduated its first students on the evening of July 2. Addresses were made by Leontine Lincoln, president of the board of trustees, the Hon. John N. Cole, of Andover, Speaker of the Massachusetts House of Representatives, Simeon B. Chase, of the King Philip Mills, James E. Cunneen, of the Seaconnet Mills, the Hon. William S. Greene, and Principal Joseph W. Bailey. The latter stated that during the year the school had the largest evening class of any school in Massachusetts, 453 names having been enrolled.

The graduates from the day course, in general cotton manufacturing, were Walter R. Fleet and Chester T. Lawton.

One hundred and nineteen evening students received certificates, as follows:

**PICKER AND CARD ROOMS.** — Joseph N. Anderson, Charles E. Brady, Walter J. Buck, Charles Kelly, John Swindells, and Alexander R. Townson.

**RING SPINNING AND TWISTING.** — Denerie Barcelou, Philip Larouche, Walter Mercer, Absalom C. Sutcliffe, Lester W. Bowers, Abel L. Cyr, Thomas Mowbray, Patrick Ryan, Harry Smith, and Samuel Witts.

**MULE SPINNING.** — Joseph Corner, Thomas Mowbray, Albert E. Harrison, James Harrison, and James Taylor.

**PLAIN WEAVING AND FIXING.** — William E. Ashton, Arthur Barnes, William H. Booth, Samuel Brierley, John J. Brady, Alfred Burns, Jr., Edwin Burns, Samuel Campbell, Thomas Charnley, Evangeliste Courville, Shapherd A. Hindle, Charles M. Kirker, Richard F. Entwistle, John F. Jones, Telesphore Grenier, Joseph H. Hathaway, John L. Hacking, Joseph Jarvis, Peter LaFlam, Joseph Menard, Hermengild Lamotte, William Doolan, James Porter, Arthur Provost, John Stone, Thomas Shaw, John G. Sharples, William Singleton, Francis Shanley, John T. Sunderland, John H. Tobin, John F. Wheelan, John E. Yates, Arthur Riendeau, Henry Riendeau, and Thomas Pearson.

**BOX AND DOBBY WEAVING.** — Lawrence Anderson, John Apsden, William Christophers, William E. Jones, Fred Lightbown, William Lord, Robert Lees, George M. Mackie, William H. Mooney, George H. Minney, William Taylor, Thomas Townson, James Tattersall, Thomas Vickers, and Whittaker Yates.

**JACQUARD WEAVING AND FIXING.** — Israel Bowden, John Gill, David A. Williamson, Hugh Loudon, John B. Hothersall,

Arthur B. Hatch, Arthur Marsden, Joseph Fielden, George H. Maines, and Joseph H. Smith.

DESIGNING. — John T. Marsden, Robert E. Turner, Walter R. Hall, Joseph T. Leach, George B. Lovell, Edward B. Lovell, Albert Lighbown, John H. Lighbown, George Sunderland, Carl C. Forster, Thomas A. Tierney, James W. Lenaghan, Joseph Roberts, Robert W. Zuill, and Catharine F. Powers.

GENERAL CHEMISTRY. — Thomas H. Duffy, Joseph A. Fenner, Julius E. Fuller, Suekichi Fujita, Frank Hardy, John J. McDade, William Pearson, William H. Phillips, and Michael Reagan.

QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS. — Albert V. Caulfield, George W. Hopkinson, and John F. O'Brien.

DYEING. — James P. Christensen, William T. Hindle, Edwin D. Ripley, John N. Wilkinson.

ELEMENTARY DESIGNING. — Donat Bernier, Joseph Cheetham, Ernest A. Kirby, John P. Reardon, George G. Wells.

JACQUARD DESIGNING. — George F. Rawlinson.

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## SERICULTURE AND THE SILK INDUSTRY IN JAPAN.

IN Japan conditions are quite the reverse of those in China. The industry is not languishing or threatened, but is bounding along in a most satisfactory manner. Even the war with Russia did not lessen the production of raw silk, the country's exports for the year 1904 being the largest in its history. Neither the culture of the silk-worm nor the cultivation of the mulberry trees is left to the intelligence or discretion of the unscientific peasants, but the aid of an efficient government is given and insisted upon, to the end that best results may be obtained. It is to Japan that the silk manufacturers of the United States look for the bulk of their raw material, taking from that country two-thirds of its entire export.

In Japan, as in Italy and China, the majority of the raisers of silk-worms are the farmers, who with their wives and children engage in it as an auxiliary industry, in 1901 there being 475,819 families so engaged. The average production per family was five bushels of cocoons. There are, however, not a few who undertake the work as their sole occupation, and as these raisers generally belong to the class in easy conditions, their average intelligence is higher than ordinary farmers. The business, once looked upon as a speculative one and irregular in its profit, is now regarded as a regular, profitable occupation.



Mulberry trees are planted and specially cultivated in orchards, and only in mountainous districts or in out-of-the-way places are trees grown without such care. Their treatment varies according to climatic conditions of various localities, it being necessary to guard against frost and winter killing, dwarf trouble, and damage from tilz and injurious insects. In 1901 the number of acres planted in mulberry trees was 599,095. In addition, the tree is often planted to form fences, the borders of farms, or hedges about houses, and it is estimated that more than one-fourth the supply of leaves used for feeding silk-worms is furnished by these hedges.

The breeders of silk-worms receive special instruction in zoölogy, botany, natural philosophy and chemistry by a government expert attached to the governor's office in each ken. Schools have been opened for instruction in sericulture, experiments and investigations in sericulture, distribution of silk-worm eggs, and answering inquiries.

Two courses of study are provided; one, extending over two years, gives instruction in the scientific principles and practices of sericulture, and the other, of only five months, teaches the elementary principles of the industry and gives attention to the practical side of the work. In 1901 a special course was added for the benefit of experienced sericulturists who wish to study the diseases of silk-worms. There are also, scattered throughout the provinces, thirty-nine public and eighty-six private schools which give instruction in practical sericulture. As a result of work done in the sericultural laboratory, Pasteur's grainage cellular method for fighting the silk-worm epidemic was remodeled and improved so as to prove an effective means of abating this evil. Regulations, enforced by the Government, for the examination of silk-worm eggs, have resulted in raising the standard quality of eggs and hindering the spread of epidemics.

A law promulgated in March, 1900, provided for the organization of credit guilds for the protection of farmers and small manufacturers. These guilds receive assistance from the Government, besides being exempt from the payment of income and business taxes. There are seventy-seven raw silk guilds, twenty-three silk-worm egg guilds, and two sericultural guilds. Their object is to advance the industry they represent, and to maintain a high standard of excellence in the exports of the commodities with which they are concerned.

As a precaution against diseases, the Government has published and enforced rules for inspecting eggs. These rules have been applied to egg raisers, and officials appointed by the Government superintend the rearing of the worms and examine the eggs. If these are not up to the standard they are forbidden to be bought or sold. Again, the Government encourages the disinfection of the rearing rooms and rearing apparatus; but for this, agricultural associations in various cities, prefectures, counties, and villages are responsible.

#### RAISING COCOONS.

The assumed value of cocoons of 25 cents per pound, ready for the reeler, is distributed about as follows: To the owner for his trees, 15 cents; for seed, paper, and other incidental expenses,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  cents; for labor,  $7\frac{1}{2}$  cents. Four cocoon crops are not unfrequently raised in Japan, but the majority of raisers are engaged but once or twice, and a very few three or four times. The number of days spent in raising cocoons is as follows: Spring cocoons, forty days; summer cocoons, twenty-five to thirty days; autumn cocoons, twenty-five days. The number of silk-worms raised at the various seasons is as follows, given in cards (average number of worms per card 40,000): Spring cocoons, 2,442,388; summer cocoons, 699,323; autumn cocoons, 743,940. The quantity of cocoons produced by the above number of worms is as follows, in a koku of 38 kilograms (83.6 pounds) each: Spring cocoons, 1,774,936; summer cocoons, 359,722; autumn cocoons, 414,516.

One person can care for from half an ounce to  $12\frac{1}{2}$  ounces of newly hatched worms, and for the gathering of mulberry leaves twenty persons are required for every half ounce of worms. The daily wage of women engaged in raising cocoons is ten cents; children, where they are employed, receive about half that sum. The number of hours of employment per day for women is from ten to twelve, and the number of days of employment during the year about one hundred and twenty. The average number of worms that one operative can attend to the feeding of is 40,000. The average quantity of cocoons produced by this number of worms is  $83\frac{1}{3}$  pounds, and the average quantity of raw silk reeled from this quantity of cocoons is  $5\frac{3}{8}$  pounds, and about  $1\frac{1}{8}$  pounds of waste silk.

## SILK REELING.

Cocoons are graded as follows: First class, best quality; second class, middling quality; third class, bad quality; fourth class, worst quality (such as soiled cocoons, dead-worm cocoons, and thin-skinned cocoons). The average quantity of silk reeled daily by each operative is about  $12\frac{1}{2}$  ounces. The average daily wages of first class women operatives is 25 cents and of the ordinary class  $7\frac{1}{2}$  cents. The price paid per pound for reeling varies from 30 to  $36\frac{1}{2}$  cents. The hours of labor vary according to the season, the number ranging from eleven to fifteen according to the district.

Two methods of reeling are in use, machine reeling and frame reeling, the former being employed only in factories, while the latter is used both in factories and in the homes of farmers, where the reeling of silk often constitutes a by-industry. Counting as factories all establishments that employ ten or more operatives, there were, in 1900, 2,072 machine-reeling factories, employing 122,116 pans, and 597 frame-reeling factories, employing 55,022 pans. In that year 8,258,492 pounds of silk were turned out by machine reeling, and 6,372,766 pounds by frame reeling. As the average produce per pan was 64 pounds by machine and 36 pounds by frame, it is evident that about 122,000 pans were used in establishments employing frame reeling, but having less than ten operatives each—that is to say, in the homes of farmers. The cost of producing 100 pounds of raw silk by machine reeling was at that time \$58.26, and by frame reeling \$48.30.

The Tomioka filature, established by the Government, led the way in introducing the factory system in silk reeling, and has been utilized as a kind of experimental establishment to determine the best method of preserving cocoons and the systems of reeling best adapted to the conditions in this country. In 1903 a course of study was added in one of the Government sericulture schools to provide training in the manufacture of silk. In 1894 the Government established two silk-conditioning houses, of which the one at Yokohama is still in operation. It undertakes to determine the gross weight of silk by examining it when packed; the net weight of silk by taking into account the quantity of moisture contained in it; the number of breakages by re-reeling the silk and the rate of such breakages per reel; the

size of filaments and their relative uniformity; the relative number of knots in the filaments; the strength and tenacity of the filaments; the relative quantities of gummy substances present in the filaments, and the relative decrease in the quantity by softening.

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### VEGETABLE MATTER IN WOOL.

LAST year the Bradford Chamber of Commerce, considering the prevalence of vegetable matter in wool of much importance, addressed the appended circular letter to chambers of commerce in the various countries in which English imports originate, and distributed it among English farmers. Inasmuch as the same complaint is of long standing in the United States we reprint it in the hope that some day, by reason of the repeated statement of the harm done by the presence in the wool of these foreign substances, the growers will recognize the desirability of taking all possible steps to eliminate such objectionable matter and bring their product to market in greatly improved condition. The letter is as follows:

Spinners and manufacturers complain that increasing quantities of vegetable matter, such as fragments of hemp, jute, string, straw, dried grass, etc., are found in colonial and foreign wools. This appears to be due in some cases to the sheep being shorn and the fleeces wound in places where fragments of grass, straw, etc., are littered about, and in others, and more largely, to the string and the hemp or jute material used in packing the wool for shipment, this material moreover being said to be inferior to that used some years ago, inasmuch as it appears to be more loosely spun and woven, and is consequently more easily frayed.

During handling — in shipping, unshipping, warehousing, etc., — the bales become more or less damaged, and fragments of the bagging and sewing twine get intimately mixed with the wool. Owing to the color being practically the same, these fragments are very difficult to detect. Should they not be detected and removed when the wool is "sorted," they not only become as white as the wool itself during the subsequent stages of scouring and combing, but are also reduced to small particles and distributed more thoroughly among the wool. It is practically impossible to detect their presence in the top or yarn. They consequently become incorporated in the woven piece, and are not visible until the piece is dyed and finished. Vegetable fibers absolutely refuse to take the dyes used for wool; consequently when the pieces are dyed and finished these particles of vegetable matter appear in



black goods as tiny white streaks, and in goods of other shades they are also easily perceived. The value of the finished article is thus seriously depreciated.

Some of the principal remedies suggested are (1) that care should be taken to see that no grass, straw, etc., is wound with the fleeces; (2) that as far as practicable the bales should be cut open at the seams; where that is not done care being taken to so cut the bagging as to damage it as little as possible in order to minimize the fraying of the loose ends; (3) that the bagging should be paper-lined (*i.e.*, that it should consist of a double texture, bagging on one side and paper on the other) so as to prevent detached fragments of the bagging from getting into the wool; and (4) that the string used for sewing up the bales should be dyed *black*, so that if any fragments get into the wool they may be more readily detected and removed during "sorting."

We are desirous to impress upon you the importance of these matters and to request that you will bring them before persons interested in the question with a view to the remedying of the evils complained of, which will be to the advantage of all parties concerned.

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#### THE AUSTRALASIAN WOOL SEASON OF 1905-6.

WE make the following excerpts from "Dalgety's Annual Review" of the Australasian wool season ending June 30, 1906. It says:

Australasia has experienced another bounteous year, and all who are associated directly or indirectly with the wool industry are to be congratulated upon the marvelous increase in production resulting from two years of adequate rainfall, and upon the high level of values which prevail. Satisfactory as were the results secured by producers in the preceding season, they have been eclipsed by those obtained in that just closed, while to the buying and selling brokers alike they have been of the most favorable nature.

The Commonwealth is showing its wonderful recuperative powers after the drought's scourge, the outlook for the approaching season, except in a few districts, being exceedingly bright for a record production. The increase in numbers, notwithstanding the greater consumption of mutton and lamb in the local markets and the heavier shipments of frozen meat, will again be large, with a prospect of a wool clip equaling, if not exceeding, two million bales, larger than the greatest which Australasia has yet produced.

Taking merino and crossbred wool together, the average value

to-day is almost equal to that of 1899, when merino wool was, say, 1 d. to 2 d. per pound dearer than at present, but medium and coarse crossbreds on the average are 3 d. per pound lower. Were it not for the fact, therefore, that 75 per cent of the Australasian clip is composed of merino wool, present prices would be on the average higher than during the period mentioned above, and in fact in any year since 1883. A further increase in the output of crossbred wool has been induced by the ready sale which frozen mutton and lamb find in oversea markets and, with the adaptability of large tracts of country both in Australia and New Zealand for producing excellent meat, it may be expected that in the former country there will be an increasing production of coarse wool and in the latter a maintenance of the present export.

Respecting the relationship in the value of coarse and fine wool, the "Review" says:

A year back 40's tops were worth 16½ d. per pound and 60's 25½ d. per pound, a difference of 55 per cent in favor of merino. To-day the respective prices are 19 d. for 40's and 28 d. for 60's, a difference of only 47 per cent, making the position one which has not been experienced in the course of the past thirty years. Only a few years ago crossbred wool was so cheap that manufacturers were induced to direct their attention to its uses, with the result that it was forced into fashion, leading to enormous consumption. Forty's tops appreciated in value from 7 d. per pound in 1902 to 13 d. per pound at the commencement of the Russo-Japanese war in 1904, and 16½ d. per pound at the end of that year, which was thought to be a dangerously high rate. . . . Values have advanced, until to-day the price for 40's is 19 d. per pound, an improvement of 15 per cent for the year under review and an advance of 170 per cent on the prices ruling four years back. As compared with this, the advance in standard merino tops (super 60's) since the beginning of 1902 has been but 8 d. per pound, or 40 per cent, and 2½ d. per pound, or barely 10 per cent, as contrasted with one year ago. . . . Though production is rapidly increasing, the world's output only looks large when compared with the clips of the years immediately succeeding the Australian drought. Had the dry years not been experienced, and had the Australian production increased in the same ratio as it did from 1890 to the commencement of the drought in 1903, consumers would have been called upon to use over 4,000,000 bales more than have actually been available during the past ten years.

The American demand, which was not so marked as in the previous year, shifted somewhat from the super merinos of Victoria to the fine crossbreds, the New Zealand wools of that variety

attracting more attention from our buyers than ever before. As these fine crossbreds are said to yield on the average 10 per cent more clear wool than merinos, the quest for them is somewhat explained. The proportion of wool taken by the United States and Canada was less than the previous year, as was that by Japan of the scoured wools, of which it buys almost exclusively. Almost all other countries took increased quantities. The percentages taken by each section of the trade, compiled from returns furnished by buyers, were:

	1904-5.	1905-6.	1904-5.	1905-6.
	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Per-centage.</i>	<i>Per-centage.</i>
United Kingdom.....	315,675	379,850	29%	28%
The Continent.....	554,429	766,469	50%	57%
United States and Canada ....	90,274	83,616	8%	6%
Japan, China, India .....	22,867	11,033	3%	1%
Local Manufacturers, etc....	109,406	113,897	10%	10%

Touching on the importance of properly preparing wool for market, rendered more difficult when there are many farmers' parcels, the "Review" says:

The clip as a whole continues to show some improvement in preparation for market, but it is still necessary to impress upon growers the great desirability of seeing that the skirting of the fleeces, if done at all, is carefully supervised, and that any short, yolkly black tipped fleeces, which appear to be now more numerous than in the past on account of the introduction of Vermont blood and abundance of good feed, be kept separate from the more shafty and better conditioned fleeces. The classing of crossbreds shows an advance towards greater perfection, though many clips, both large and small, continue to be not too carefully graded and skirted, this being especially the case in many parts of New Zealand. The first thing to consider in preparing crossbred wool for market is quality, which, as all breeders know, varies so much in a crossbred flock however well bred the sheep may be. . . . It has been the experience during several past seasons that some excellent clips missed the American competition, owing to the faulty manner in which the fleeces had been skirted. This requires the careful attention of wool classers, as it is well known that the slightest deviation from the requirements of United States representatives very frequently causes the loss of their valuable competition for wool, which is in all respects save one entirely suitable for their orders.

The policy of dividing the larger estates by the owners and the acquiring of such estates by the Government or syndicates for the purpose of subdivision and sale has been continued in most of the States of the Commonwealth. The tendency in this direction has been increased by the better prices now being secured for the land. The statement is made that in Victoria the value of a freehold estate has been enhanced on the average at least £1 per acre owing to the better seasons recently experienced and the much higher prices obtained for their products, which have enabled pastoralists to earn much larger returns than formerly on their invested capital. Some view with feelings of alarm the breaking up of well-known sheep stations; but if the land gets into the hands of more men, under a more intensive system of farming, Dalgety thinks "sheep kept should be not much smaller in number, while the greater capacity for wool growing will to a large extent compensate for the fewer numbers."

The least favorable feature, the "Review" says, of the past few years of plenty in Australia has been the increase of rabbits. They have not been confined to districts previously cursed with their presence, but have spread with extraordinary rapidity both north and west. Though everywhere the hand of man is against the rabbits they have multiplied wonderfully. Their destructiveness may be realized when it is known that a half dozen rabbits will eat or destroy as much feed as one sheep, the latter being worth more than thirty of the former, even when the rabbits are in hand at the shipping ports ready for export. Dr. Danysz, of the Pasteur Institute, from whose experiments it was hoped some microbes, fatal alone to rabbits, might be secured, arrived in Australia in June: but owing to an agitation against the introduction of the microbes, he was not permitted to conduct his experiments on Broughton Island, but was obliged to begin his preliminary work in a laboratory in Sydney. He never promised that he could produce the desired microbes, and what the result of his efforts will be remains to be seen. All interested in the wool industry wish him abundant success.

Progressive sheep farmers in South Africa are awakening to the necessity of improving not only the condition of their flocks, but the introduction of better blood. It is interesting to note that envoys from the Orange River Colony were recently in Australia for the purpose of buying stud and grade merinos with which to increase and improve the flocks of that country.



Respecting the future the article says :

From all that can be learned the Americans, whose competition we so covet, are likely to again operate with spirit. . . . All things considered, we take the view that while the production during the next twelve months will not result in any plethora of stocks, either of the raw or manufactured article, the use of substitutes and firmness of money are likely to act as barriers to any further increase in values, and may, in fact, cause a moderate lowering of the present level. One thing can be guaranteed, and that is that stocks have probably not been so low as at present for quite thirty years, and that trade is good and shows signs of remaining so. It would appear, therefore, that a ready demand is likely to welcome the coming clip, but that as the present state of affairs is perhaps the climax to a period of a fairly gradual increase in the price of wool, values can hardly be expected to be maintained for a long period at the present level, though any decline should be gradual. Not only should the clip of 1906 be cleared at comparatively high prices, but wool growing ought to be a profitable industry for some years to come.

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### THE FREE ALCOHOL LAW.

By the President's approval of the free alcohol bill on June 7, the agitation for the removal of the internal revenue tax (\$2.20 per gallon, 100 per cent pure) which covered a period of fifteen years, was brought to a successful conclusion. Prior to the passage by the Congress of the recent act alcohol freed from tax could be withdrawn from bond by the Government for the Navy and War Departments and for use in the hospital service. It was entitled to be withdrawn also for scientific and educational purposes, for the purification of sweet wine and the making of sugar out of sorghum syrup. In the future it can be used without payment of the tax in the arts and industries, and for fuel, light, and power provided it is denatured and made unsuitable for drinking or medicinal purposes.

The passage of the bill was made possible, in spite of the well directed opposition of the producers of wood alcohol, by the advocacy of the measure by the farming classes who brought strong pressure to bear on their Representatives in Congress. Perhaps, in some measure, this support was given in the belief that, with the use of alcohol largely extended in the industries of the country, an opening would be given for the production of new crops out of which alcohol can be distilled, and the use of

many of their by-products now going to waste. An impression was created that the production of alcohol from potatoes, corn stalks, and various other farm products would be an easy and profitable matter for the individual farmer, to whom encouragement was given by the advocates of the bill that he might become the producer of his own fuel for power and light. Now, however, it is announced that all alcohol must be manufactured and denatured under the supervision of officers of the Internal Revenue Department at the expense of the manufacturer, a requirement which will prevent individual attempts and compel the enterprise to be undertaken by men controlling a considerable capital. But even with the manufacture largely impossible for the individual farmer or coöperative organizations among them, the increased consumption of alcohol, which is expected to follow this legislation, may enable him, along with the industries of the country, to experience directly certain benefits from it.

The industries in which alcohol is necessary as a solvent cover a wide range, including hats, varnishes, brass work, furniture, chemical preparations, soaps, dyes, photographic materials, powder, electrical fixtures, artificial silk, the manufacture of which in this country heretofore has been prevented by the internal revenue tax, paper, paints, and many others. To these, if efforts to develop alcohol as a cheap and satisfactory fuel for light, heat, and power should not prove successful, the opportunity to secure alcohol at a cost approaching what is paid for it in other countries ought to be of very considerable importance.

The problem of utilizing alcohol for these latter purposes is one to which the efforts of the inventors of the United States will now be directed and one which, in the opinion of Commissioner Yerkes, will be successfully solved by them. To make it available for such uses, and enable it to compete with gasoline, the price must be reduced considerably from the predicted cost of thirty-five or forty-five cents a gallon, and machinery must be devised which can secure from it results equally economical as from materials costing less. In England, France, and Germany denatured alcohol has not supplanted gasoline. While it is extensively used in some lines of manufacturing it has not come into general use for power purposes. That alcohol is largely produced from potatoes in Germany at a price which permits its more general use for power than in other countries, and that engines have been constructed there which use it as a motive

power, encourages the belief that even more satisfactory results may, in time, be achieved in this country.

In thus making alcohol free for art and industry it is predicted that the wood alcohol industry, which has been developed since 1890 and whose product has been heretofore used as a substitute for grain alcohol, will severely suffer, if it is not ruined. The wood alcohol is a by-product of the charcoal iron furnaces and is essential to sustain that kind of furnace in its contest with the less expensive coke furnace. If its production is to be limited or considerably curtailed by the competition of grain alcohol, it is alleged that the charcoal iron industry will be dealt a very serious blow. The advocates of free alcohol, while admitting that grain alcohol will supersede wood alcohol, predict the use of the former will soon reach such proportions that much of the latter will be needed as a denaturing agent, and that eventually the output will be but very little lessened.

In this connection it is fitting that attention should be called to the position taken by Mr. William Whitman, President of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, who as early as 1883, in an address delivered before the Arkwright Club of Boston and published in Volume XIII. of this Bulletin, page 270, advocated the remission of this internal revenue tax because of its burdensome effect upon art and industry.

## DECISIONS OF THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT ON THE WOOLEN TARIFF.

(T.D. 26606—G.A. 6109.)

*Leicester Wool.*

NEW YORK, July 20, 1905.

1. **LEICESTER WOOL FROM NEW ZEALAND.** Wool the fleece of the Leicester sheep imported from New Zealand is more specifically provided for in paragraph 350, tariff act of 1897, than in paragraph 349.
  2. **CONGRESSIONAL INTENT.** The phrase in paragraph 348 "and all wools not hereinafter included in Classes two and three" operates to exclude from classification under paragraph 349 such wools as are specified in or usually known by the terms used in paragraph 350.
  3. **CLASSIFICATION.** Leicester wool, irrespective of the country of origin is dutiable at the rate of 12 cents per pound under paragraphs 350 and 357 of the present act.
- In the matter of protest 135654 of Cleveland Worsted Mills Company against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of Cleveland. Before Board 1 (Lunt, Sharretts, and McClelland, General Appraisers; signed by Sharretts and Fischer, *G.A.*).

**SHARRETTS, general appraiser:** This protest covers 97 bales of New Zealand wool, imported into the port of Cleveland, Ohio, and

is dutiable under the tariff act of 1897. It was classified by the collector as Class 2, and is claimed by the importers to be Class 1 wool.

The contention of the importers is based on the inferiority of the wool, which contention is well founded as regards the quality of some of the fleeces, but from the expert testimony taken in the case it also appears that the wool is all of pure English blood.

The two paragraphs bearing upon the question at issue are :

349, Class one. 350, Class two.<sup>1</sup>

A careful consideration of the language of the two paragraphs leads us to conclude that in addition to the wools specifically enumerated in paragraph 349 all other wool not included in Classes 2 and 3 are properly classifiable as Class 1 wool.

Were it not for the words "and all wools not included in Classes two and three," we would feel inclined to hold that Class 1 wool was limited to such as showed traces of Merino blood, such as merino, metz, or metis wools; but, as before stated, the paragraph as framed is broad enough to cover all wools with or without traces of Merino blood not included in Classes 2 and 3; hence the proper classification of the wools in dispute is dependent upon whether they are or are not included in Class 2, it being conceded that they are not Class 3 wool.

Upon this point it may primarily be stated that all wools of pure English blood do not necessarily fall within the terms of paragraph 350. That the wools are of English blood is an absolute requisite, but an equally essential condition is that they are closely identified with the English wools mentioned in the paragraph, the words "and usually known by the terms herein used" being sufficiently indicative of Congressional intent upon this point.

The wool in question is known as New Zealand wool, but the evidence shows that it is the fleece of the Leicester sheep, and had it been imported from Great Britain would be known as Leicester wool.

Based upon this evidence we find that the merchandise is wool of Class 2, and hold that it was properly assessed with duty at 12 cents per pound under paragraph 357 of the tariff act of 1897.

The protest is overruled and the collector's decision affirmed.

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(T.D. 26610—G.A. 6113.)

*Goat hair unfit for combing purposes.*

NEW YORK, July 21, 1905.

Goat hair showing merely a trace of Angora blood and unfit for combing purposes is free of duty under paragraph 571, tariff act of 1897, and not dutiable under paragraphs 350 and 357 of the said act.

In the matter of the protest 116663 of Dornan Brothers against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of Philadelphia. Before Board 1 (Lunt, Sharretts, and McClelland, General Appraisers; signed by Sharretts and Fischer, *G.A.*).

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<sup>1</sup> Text of paragraphs omitted. — ED.



SHARRETTS, *general appraiser*: The goods covered by this protest arrived at Philadelphia and were classified and assessed with duty by the collector at that port under the provisions of paragraphs 350 and 357 of the present tariff act, namely, 12 cents per pound. The importers claim the commodity to be free under paragraph 571, which exempts from duty hair of the horse, cattle, and other animals.

The merchandise is admittedly goat hair, and is either dutiable at 12 cents per pound, as assessed, as Angora goat hair or is free, as claimed.

The testimony taken in the case is voluminous, and although conflicting in some respects, is conclusive on the points that the hair in question shows merely a strain of Angora blood and that it is not fit for combing purposes.

It also appears from the concurrent testimony of the witnesses, both for the Government and the importers, that the commodity in dispute more closely resembles chevrette goat hair as shown by the Government type sample No. 224, which is exempt from duty, than it does the hair contained in cabinet samples Nos. 204 to 208, covering Angora goat hair included within the provisions of paragraph 350.

The Board, without deciding whether the language of paragraph 350 is sufficiently restrictive to include in Class 2 only combing Angora goat hair as well as combing wool finds on the exhibits and from the evidence that the merchandise is not Angora goat hair provided for in paragraph 350, and sustains the protest, reversing the collector's decision.

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(T.D. 26823.)

*Cotton and wool cloth.*

BENOIT *v.* UNITED STATES.

U.S. Circuit Court, Southern District of New York. April 21, 1892.  
Suit 665.

1. COTTON AND WOOL CLOTH—SPECIFIC DESIGNATION—MANUFACTURES OF COTTON—MANUFACTURES IN PART OF WOOL. The provision in paragraph 355, tariff act of 1890, for "all manufactures of cotton not specially provided for," is more specific than that in paragraph 392 for "all manufactures of every description made wholly or in part of wool . . . not specially provided for;" and cloth composed in part of wool but in chief value of cotton falls under the former rather than the latter provision.
2. PROVISIONS EQUALLY SPECIFIC. The provision in paragraph 355, tariff act of 1890, for "all manufactures of cotton not specially provided for," being more specific than that in paragraph 392 for "all manufactures of every description made wholly or in part of wool . . . not specially provided for," articles covered by both are not within the provision in Sect. 5 of said act that "if two or more rates of duty shall be applicable to any imported article, it shall pay duty at the highest of such rates."

ON application for review of a decision of the Board of United States General Appraisers.

In the decision below, which is reported as G.A. 1064 (T.D. 12250), the Board affirmed the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York on merchandise imported by A. V. Benoit.

This merchandise consisted of cloth having a cotton warp and a wool weft. It was classified under the provision in paragraph 392, tariff act of 1890, for "all manufactures of every description made wholly or in part of wool . . . not specially provided for," and was claimed by the importer to be dutiable under paragraph 355, relating to "all manufactures of cotton not specially provided for." The Board found that "it is a manufacture of which cotton is the component material of chief value," but held that, as paragraph 355 does not contain a provision for manufactures in chief value of cotton, "the provision of paragraph 392 is equally as specific, and controls the classification of the goods by reason of its imposing the higher rate of duty applicable," under Sect. 5 of said act, which provides:

If two or more rates of duty shall be applicable to any imported article it shall pay duty at the highest of such rates.

LACOMBE, *circuit judge*: The circumstance that the principal testimony of the witness called by the Government is based not upon the sample upon which the Board of Appraisers had based their decision, but upon another sample, seems to me insufficient to warrant me in setting aside their finding of fact. But taking the fact to be as they have found it, I think I must reverse their decision, in view of the different doctrine as to the law which has been laid down by the Supreme Court.<sup>1</sup> The decision is therefore reversed, and the collector is directed to classify the goods under Sect. 355.

NOTE.—No further proceedings were taken in this case (T.D. 12758).

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(T.D. 26908.)

*Fabrics of silk and wool, silk chief value.*

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, December 14, 1905.

Appeal directed from decision of Board of United States General Appraisers, Abstract 9272 (T.D. 26890), wherein it is held that certain fabrics composed of silk and wool, silk chief value, are properly dutiable under paragraph 387 (silk schedule), tariff act of 1897.

SIR: The Department is in receipt of a decision of the Board of United States General Appraisers, dated the 4th instant, Abstract 9272 (T.D. 26890), in the matter of protest 162810 of Scruggs, Vandervoort & Barney Dry Goods Company, wherein it is held that certain fabrics composed of silk and wool, silk chief value, are properly dutiable under paragraph 387 of the act of July 24, 1897, of the silk schedule, and are not dutiable under the enumeration for women's and children's dress goods, in part of wool, under paragraph 369, under the same act, as assessed.

In view of the importance of the issue, you are hereby directed to

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<sup>1</sup> The decision referred to is understood to be *Liebenroth v. Robertson* (144 U.S. 35). See T.D. 12758.

file an application for review from the said decision of the Board of United States General Appraisers, in accordance with Sect. 15 of the customs administrative act of June 10, 1890.

Respectfully,

JAMES B. REYNOLDS,  
*Assistant Secretary.*

(32877.)

SURVEYOR OF CUSTOMS, *St. Louis, Mo.*

(T.D. 26943.)

*Woolen goods, act of 1894.*

ROBINSON *v.* UNITED STATES.

U.S. Circuit Court, Southern District of New York. December 19, 1905.  
Suit 3980.

WOOLEN GOODS ACT OF 1894 — MANUFACTURES OF WOOL. — Paragraph 297, tariff act of 1894, deferring until January 1, 1895, the reduction in duty provided by said act on "manufactures of wool," *Held* applicable to goods composed in part, but not in chief value, of wool.

ON application for review of decisions of the Board of United States General Appraisers.

For decisions below see Abstracts 5560-3 and 5598-9 (T.D. 26248), in which the Board affirmed the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York on importations by Harry Robinson.

The merchandise in controversy consists of dress goods composed in part of wool but in chief value of silk, and was either entered for consumption, or withdrawn from bonded warehouse for consumption, after August 27, 1894, and before January 1, 1895, which was the period covered by paragraph 297, tariff act of 1894, prescribing that the reduction in duties provided by said act on "manufactures of wool" should be deferred until January 1, 1895. The collector construed said expression, "manufactures of wool," as including merchandise of this character, though not composed wholly or in chief value of wool, and classified it under paragraph 394 or 395 of the preceding tariff act of 1890, as "women's and children's dress goods . . . composed wholly or in part of wool." The importer contended that paragraph 297 did not apply, and that, as the merchandise went into consumption after the act of 1894 took effect, the rates of duty provided by said act should have been imposed.

PLATT, *District Judge*: Decision of the Board of General Appraisers affirmed.

## ABSTRACTS OF OTHER BOARD CASES.

(T.D. 26559.)

**Nos. 7127 and 7185.** — WOOLEN RAGS. — Protests of Pearson & Emmott and others against the assessment of duty by the collectors of customs at the ports of Philadelphia and New York. Before Board 1 (Lunt, Sharretts, and McClelland, General Appraisers; signed by Sharretts and Fischer, G.A.), June 26 and 27, 1905. Opinion by Sharretts, G.A.

Protest sustained on the authority of *United States v. Pearson* (T.D. 26394), relating to wool clippings held to be dutiable as woollen rags under paragraph 363, tariff act of 1897.

(T.D. 26682.)

**Nos. 7818 and 8606.** — SELVAGE OF RUGS. — Protests of John C. Uhrlaub and Jos. Wild & Co. against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York. Before Board 3 (Waite, Somerville, and Hay, General Appraisers), August 22 and October 18, 1905. Opinion by Somerville, G.A.

Protests overruled on the authority of G.A. 5062 (T.D. 23470) relating to selvage of rugs.

**No. 7846.** — MANUFACTURES OF WOOL. — Protest \$159 *h* of Libbey & Ryker against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York. Before Board 1 (Lunt, Sharretts, and McClelland, General Appraisers; Lunt, G.A., absent), August 24, 1905. Opinion by Sharretts, G.A.

Certain merchandise, classified as wool wearing apparel partly made, under paragraph 370, tariff act of 1897, was found by the Board to be material for the making of hats, and not in itself wearing apparel, and held to be dutiable under paragraph 366, as claimed by the importers.

(T.D. 26708.)

**No. 8019.** — WOOL CHAIR SEATING. — Protest 106147 of Bun Fong Low & Co. against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of Boston. Before Board 1 (Lunt, Sharretts, and McClelland, General Appraisers; Lunt, G.A., absent), September 5, 1905. Opinion by Sharretts, G.A.

The merchandise in controversy consisted of chair seats composed of woven bamboo seating lined with wool and jute cloth and stuffed with straw. The Board held it to have been properly classified as composed in chief value of wool.

(T.D. 26753.)

**No. 8362.** — WOOL DRESS GOODS. — Protest 151574 of Leopold Levy against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New Orleans. Before Board 1 (Lunt, Sharretts, and McClelland, General Appraisers; Lunt G.A., absent), September 28, 1905. Opinion by McClelland, G.A.

The importer protested against the classification of the merchandise as woollen dress goods under paragraph 369, tariff act of 1897, basing his objections on the fact that in his business he uses the goods only for making curtains or draperies. As the preponderance of the evidence before the Board showed the chief use of the fabrics to be in making ladies' dresses, the assessment was affirmed.



(T.D. 26840.)

**No. 8811.**— WORSTED BRAIDS.—Protests. 34240 *f*, etc., of A. J. Hague & Co. *et al.* against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York. Before Board 1 (Lunt, Sharretts and McClelland, General Appraisers), November 2, 1905. Opinion by Lunt, G.A.

The merchandise consisted of skirt facing, composed of worsted braid with a wool or mohair chenille edge stitched on. The Board held it to be dutiable as wool trimmings and overruled the protests.

(T.D. 26866.)

**No. 9044.**— GLOVE LININGS.—WEARING APPAREL PARTLY MANUFACTURED.—Protest 159433-19759 of Wilson Brothers against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of Chicago. Before Board 1 (Lunt, Sharretts, and McClelland, General Appraisers; Sharretts, G.A., absent), November 16, 1905. Opinion by Lunt, G.A.

The articles in controversy consisted of silk and wool linings for gloves. The Board held them to have been properly classified under paragraph 370, tariff act of 1897, as articles of wearing apparel partly manufactured and composed in part of wool.

(T.D. 26890.)

**No. 9272.**<sup>1</sup>—SILK FABRICS IN PART OF WOOL.—DRESS GOODS.—Protest 162810 of Scruggs, Vandervoort & Barney Dry Goods Company against the assessment of duty by the surveyor of customs at the port of St. Louis. Before Board 1 (Lunt, Sharretts, and McClelland, General Appraisers; McClelland, G.A., absent), December 4, 1905. Opinion by Lunt, G.A.

The goods consisted of silk and wool fabrics composed in chief value of silk. They were classified under the provision in paragraph 369, tariff act of 1897, for "women's and children's dress goods . . . in part of wool," and were claimed by the importers to be dutiable under the provision in paragraph 387, for "woven fabrics in the piece . . . weighing not less than one and one-third ounces per square yard and not more than eight ounces per square yard . . . dyed in the thread or yarn and . . . containing more than 30 and not more than 45 per centum in weight of silk," except a portion which was claimed to be dutiable under the further provision in paragraph 387 for similar fabrics "containing more than 45 per centum in weight of silk." The Board held the provisions of paragraph 387 to be more specific than those of paragraph 369, and sustained the protest.

<sup>1</sup> Appeal taken by Government. See T.D. 26908, page 313.—ED.

(T.D. 26902.)

**No. 9325.** — CARPETS WOVEN WHOLE FOR ROOMS. — Protests 154790, etc., of W. H. McKnight, Sons & Co., *et al.*, against the assessment of duty by the surveyor of customs at the port of Louisville. Before Board 1 (Lunt, Sharretts, and McClelland, General Appraisers), December 9, 1905.

The importers contended that the merchandise was improperly classified under the provision in paragraph 379, tariff act of 1897, for "carpets of every description woven whole for rooms." Protests overruled.

**LUNT, general appraiser:** It will be noticed that the statute does not require that the carpet should fit the irregularities in outline of a room, but that the carpet should be woven in one piece for a room; hence the claim of the importers that the carpet must be woven to fit a room has no weight.

(T.D. 26939.)

**No. 9411.** — HAT BODIES. — Protest 6450 *h* of Libby & Ryker against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York. Before Board 1 (Lunt, Sharretts, and McClelland, General Appraisers), December 18, 1905. Opinion by Sharretts, G.A.

The merchandise, which was classified as manufactures of wool under paragraph 366, tariff act of 1897, was held to be dutiable under paragraph 432, relating to fur hat bodies, as claimed by the importers.

**No. 9473.** — WOOL FILTER BAGS. — ENTIRETIES. — Protest 176733 of Hensel, Bruckmann & Lorbacher against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York. Before Board 1 (Lunt, Sharretts, and McClelland, General Appraisers), December 21, 1905. Opinion by Lunt, G.A.

The merchandise consisted of filter bags or dust bags classified as manufactures of wool under paragraph 366, tariff act of 1897, and claimed by the importers to be dutiable at the rate applicable to parts of machines in connection with which the articles were to be used, or under paragraph 395 as filter masse. The evidence showed that these articles were not imported in connection with part of any machine, but simply to replace other articles of which they are duplicates, and that they were composed wholly or in part of wool. Assessment affirmed.

**No. 9508.** — FABRICS IN PART OF WOOL. — FLAX LAPPINGS. — Protests 156196, etc., of F. Bredt & Co. against the assessment of duty by the collector of customs at the port of New York. Before Board 1 (Lunt, Sharretts, and McClelland, General Appraisers; Sharretts, G.A., absent), December 23, 1905. Opinion by Lunt, G.A.

The merchandise consisted of lappings classified under paragraph 366, tariff act of 1897, relating to cloth in part of wool, and claimed by the importers to be dutiable under paragraph 346 as fabrics in chief value of flax. Protests sustained on the authority of G.A. 5728 (T.D. 25431).

# 318 NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF WOOL MANUFACTURERS.

## COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF THE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF WOOL AND MANUFACTURES OF WOOL FOR THE TWELVE MONTHS ENDING JUNE 30, 1905 AND 1906.

### GROSS IMPORTS.

ARTICLES AND COUNTRIES.	Quantities for Twelve Months ending June 30.		Values for Twelve Months ending June 30.	
	1905.	1906.	1905.	1906.
<b>WOOL, HAIR OF THE CAMEL, GOAT, ALPACA, ETC., AND MANUFACTURES OF :</b>				
<b>UNMANUFACTURED—</b>				
Class 1—Clothing (dutiable)—	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>		
Imported from—				
United Kingdom . . . . .	36,220,624	24,942,186	\$8,350,340	\$6,403,321
France . . . . .	708,353	602,154	162,227	131,056
South America . . . . .	39,281,636	34,420,553	8,102,098	7,566,610
Asia and Oceania . . . . .	27,073,213	22,275,465	6,705,565	5,752,844
Other countries . . . . .	6,604,432	4,569,949	1,442,452	1,083,103
Total . . . . .	109,888,258	86,810,307	\$24,762,682	\$20,936,934
Class 2—Combing (dutiable)—				
Imported from—				
United Kingdom . . . . .	20,074,992	12,178,580	\$4,845,678	\$3,350,319
Other Europe . . . . .	2,511,968	639,428	689,654	184,145
British North America . . . . .	1,530,158	1,344,688	350,499	356,246
South America . . . . .	2,264,313	976,775	590,141	305,791
Asia and Oceania . . . . .	140,107	63,607	36,395	17,390
Other countries . . . . .	30,086	1,176	8,804	133
Total . . . . .	26,551,624	15,204,254	\$6,521,171	\$4,214,024
Class 3—Carpet (dutiable)—				
Imported from—				
United Kingdom . . . . .	20,398,342	16,620,343	\$3,510,261	\$2,802,038
France . . . . .	4,016,700	3,326,729	547,513	628,376
Germany . . . . .	1,051,024	1,153,687	164,364	198,347
Other Europe . . . . .	37,138,124	29,222,142	4,679,642	4,074,482
British North America . . . . .	17,742	417	2,310	117
South America . . . . .	6,845,968	6,086,821	811,718	812,432
Chinese Empire . . . . .	27,644,294	29,283,046	3,129,232	3,456,596
Other Asia and Oceania . . . . .	15,535,483	13,887,394	2,091,519	1,935,090
Other countries . . . . .	48,187	93,528	5,146	9,936
Total . . . . .	112,695,864	99,674,107	\$14,941,705	\$13,917,414
Total unmanufactured . . . . .	249,135,746	201,688,668	\$46,225,558	\$39,068,372
<b>MANUFACTURES OF—</b>				
Carpets and Carpeting (duti- able)—	<i>Sq. Yards.</i>	<i>Sq. Yards.</i>		
Imported from—				
United Kingdom . . . . .	178,102	226,143	\$405,846	\$628,713
Other Europe . . . . .	527,242	814,115	2,102,261	3,505,996
Japan . . . . .	439	1,135	1,080	1,806
Other Asia and Oceania . . . . .	109,750	132,794	359,628	471,587
Other countries . . . . .	3,317	7,818	9,178	35,418
Total . . . . .	818,850	1,182,005	\$2,877,993	\$4,643,520

## COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF IMPORTS OF WOOL. 319

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF  
WOOL, ETC.GROSS IMPORTS.—*Continued.*

ARTICLES AND COUNTRIES.	Quantities for Twelve Months ending June 30.		Values for Twelve Months ending June 30.	
	1905.	1906.	1905.	1906.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>		
Clothing, ready-made, and other wearing apparel, except shawls and knit fabrics (dutiable) . . . . .			\$1,372,145	\$1,626,279
CLOTHS— (dutiable) —				
Imported from—				
United Kingdom . . . . .	2,018,114	2,303,900	\$2,282,936	\$2,713,895
Austria-Hungary . . . . .	154,425	346,867	135,705	314,843
Belgium . . . . .	213,117	369,279	204,976	361,102
France . . . . .	168,569	150,998	212,572	182,920
Germany . . . . .	1,182,397	1,683,437	1,129,925	1,567,990
Other Europe . . . . .	2,674	7,311	2,658	7,073
Other countries . . . . .	7,401	9,026	8,287	9,597
Total . . . . .	3,746,697	4,870,818	\$3,977,059	\$5,157,420
DRESS GOODS, WOMEN'S AND CHILDREN'S— (dutiable)	<i>Sq. Yards.</i>	<i>Sq. Yards.</i>		
Imported from—				
United Kingdom . . . . .	31,680,549	31,935,450	\$5,332,746	\$5,288,263
France . . . . .	8,524,206	11,869,168	2,080,518	2,606,211
Germany . . . . .	4,767,901	8,791,241	1,143,628	2,082,556
Other Europe . . . . .	172,658	215,720	49,545	67,662
Other countries . . . . .	24,956	19,363	6,226	4,994
Total . . . . .	45,170,270	52,830,942	\$8,612,663	\$10,049,686
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>		
Knit fabrics (dutiable) . . . . .			\$224,383	\$265,133
Mungo, flocks, shoddy, noils, wool extracts, rags, and waste (dutiable) . . . . .	277,223	1,171,095	86,978	433,863
Shawls (dutiable) . . . . .			65,185	45,544
Yarns (dutiable) . . . . .	183,211	198,601	129,736	156,629
All other (dutiable) . . . . .			547,521	702,609
Total manufactures . . . . .			\$17,893,663	\$23,080,683



COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF  
WOOL, ETC. — *Concluded.*

## EXPORTS OF WOOL AND MANUFACTURES OF.

FOREIGN.				
ARTICLES.	1905.	1906.	1905.	1906.
	Quantities.	Quantities.	Values.	Values.
WOOL, HAIR OF THE CAMEL, GOAT, ALPACA, ETC., AND MANUFACTURES OF:				
UNMANUFACTURED—				
Class 1—Clothing (dutiable) lbs .	1,924,515	3,261,458	\$293,822	\$638,464
Class 2—Combings “ “ .	108,044	416,966	27,824	110,061
Class 3—Carpet “ “ .	405,138	1,771,954	49,118	245,210
Total unmanufactured . . . .	2,437,697	5,450,378	\$370,764	\$993,735
MANUFACTURES OF—				
Carpets and carpeting, sq. yds., dutiable . . . . .	10,441	5,054	\$36,845	\$22,118
Clothing, ready made, and other wearing apparel, except shawls and knit fabrics, dutiable . . . . .			14,291	6,453
Cloths, pounds, dutiable . . . . .	26,609	40,956	20,244	27,192
Dress goods, women's and chil- dren's, sq. yds., dutiable . . . . .	129,915	227,024	25,775	41,726
Knit fabrics, dutiable . . . . .			31	
Mungo, flocks, shoddy, noils, wool extracts, rags, and waste, pounds, dutiable . . . . .	33,589	22,469	4,230	6,175
Shawls, dutiable . . . . .			1,285	
Yarns, pounds, dutiable . . . . .	1,460	1,119	477	404
All other, dutiable . . . . .			29,602	39,541
Total manufactures of . . . . .			\$132,780	\$134,609
DOMESTIC.				
Wool, raw . . . . .	123,951	192,481	\$15,068	\$29,095
MANUFACTURES OF—				
Carpets, yards . . . . .	76,872	69,842	\$64,641	\$57,297
Dress goods, yards . . . . .	19,905	17,873	15,572	16,414
Flannels and blankets . . . . .			81,556	72,412
Wearing apparel . . . . .			1,624,472	1,618,484
All other . . . . .			248,813	354,911
Total . . . . .			\$2,035,054	\$2,119,518

QUARTERLY REPORT OF THE BOSTON WOOL MARKET  
FOR APRIL, MAY, AND JUNE, 1906.

DOMESTIC WOOLS. (BENEDICT & LIVINGSTONE.)

	1906.			1905.
	April.	May.	June.	June.
OHIO, PENNSYLVANIA, AND WEST VIRGINIA.				
(WASHED.)				
XX and above . . . . .	34 @ 34½	34 @ 34½	34 @ 34½	36 @ 37
X . . . . .	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	31 @ 32	34 @ 35
¾ Blood . . . . .	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	37 @ 38	40 @ 41
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	37 @ 38	41 @ 42
Fine Delaine . . . . .	36 @ 37	36 @ 37	36 @ 37	39 @ 40
(UNWASHED.)				
Fine . . . . .	25 @ 26	25 @ 26	25 @ 26	26 @ 27
¾ Blood . . . . .	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	34 @ 35
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	32 @ 34	32 @ 34	32 @ 34	35 @ 36
Fine Delaine . . . . .	28	28	28	29 @ 30
MICHIGAN, WISCONSIN, NEW YORK, ETC.				
(WASHED.)				
Fine . . . . .	not quotable	not quotable	not quotable	31 @ 32
¾ Blood . . . . .	37 @ 38	37 @ 38	36 @ 37	37 @ 38
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	37 @ 38	37 @ 38	36 @ 37	38 @ 39
Fine Delaine . . . . .	34 @ 35	34 @ 35	34 @ 35	37 @ 38
(UNWASHED.)				
Fine . . . . .	24 @ 25	24 @ 25	24 @ 25	24 @ 25
¾ Blood . . . . .	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	32 @ 33
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	31 @ 33	31 @ 33	31 @ 33	34 @ 35
Fine Delaine . . . . .	26 @ 27	26 @ 27	26 @ 27	27 @ 28
KENTUCKY AND INDIANA.				
(UNWASHED.)				
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	32 @ 34	32 @ 34	32 @ 34	36 @ 37
Braid . . . . .	28 @ 29	28 @ 29	28 @ 29	31 @ 32
MISSOURI, IOWA, AND ILLINOIS.				
(UNWASHED.)				
¾ & ½ Blood . . . . .	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	34 @ 35
Braid . . . . .	27 @ 28	27 @ 28	27 @ 28	29 @ 30
TEXAS.				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
Spring, fine, 12 months . . . . .	72 @ 73	72 @ 73	72 @ 73	72 @ 74
“ “ 6 to 8 months . . . . .	67 @ 68	67 @ 68	67 @ 68	65 @ 67
“ medium, 12 months . . . . .	63 @ 65	63 @ 65	63 @ 65	64 @ 66
“ “ 6 to 8 months . . . . .	61 @ 63	61 @ 63	61 @ 63	60 @ 62
Fall, fine . . . . .	60 @ 61	60 @ 61	60 @ 61	60 @ 62
“ medium . . . . .	58 @ 60	58 @ 60	58 @ 60	57 @ 58
CALIFORNIA.				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
Spring, Northern, free, 12 months . . . . .	70 @ 72	70 @ 72	70 @ 72	70 @ 73
“ “ “ 6 to 8 months, . . . . .	65 @ 66	65 @ 66	65 @ 66	64 @ 67
Fall, free . . . . .	60 @ 62	60 @ 62	60 @ 62	58 @ 59
“ defective . . . . .	40 @ 45	40 @ 45	40 @ 45	45 @ 55
TERRITORY WOOL: Montana, Wyoming, Utah, Idaho, Oregon, etc.				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
Staple, fine and fine medium . . . . .	72 @ 73	72 @ 73	72 @ 73	72 @ 74
“ medium . . . . .	65 @ 67	65 @ 67	65 @ 67	65 @ 67
Clothing, fine . . . . .	69 @ 70	69 @ 70	69 @ 70	70 @ 73
“ “ medium . . . . .	67 @ 68	67 @ 68	67 @ 68	68 @ 70
“ medium . . . . .	63 @ 64	63 @ 64	63 @ 64	62 @ 65
NEW MEXICO. (Spring.)				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
No. 1 . . . . .	65 @ 67	65 @ 67	65 @ 67	68 @ 70
No. 2 . . . . .	61 @ 63	61 @ 63	60 @ 62	62 @ 63
No. 3 . . . . .	50 @ 52	50 @ 52	50 @ 52	53 @ 55
No. 4 . . . . .	41 @ 43	41 @ 43	41 @ 43	45 @ 47
NEW MEXICO. (Fall.)				
(SCOURD BASIS.)				
No. 1 . . . . .	59 @ 61	59 @ 61	58 @ 60	63 @ 65
No. 2 . . . . .	56 @ 58	56 @ 58	55 @ 57	58 @ 60
No. 3 . . . . .	49 @ 51	49 @ 51	49 @ 51	50 @ 53
No. 4 . . . . .	45 @ 46	45 @ 46	45 @ 46	46 @ 47
GEORGIA AND SOUTHERN.				
Unwashed . . . . .	30 @ 32	30 @ 31	29 @ 30	32 @ 33

## DOMESTIC WOOL.

BOSTON, June 30, 1906.

The quarter under review, embracing the months of April, May, and June, has been noted by extreme dulness in the wool trade, which is probably more pronounced in comparison with the activity which prevailed during this same period the past two years.

At the present range of values manufacturers seem disposed to take their chances on the future and to run their stock down to a smaller supply than they have carried of late. The attention of both dealers and manufacturers has been very largely directed to the opening of the domestic clip in the country, and the consumers, having supplied their immediate wants, have not felt any disposition to stock up until the arrival of new wools, when values will have become more fully established.

The clip has now opened in the interior markets on the basis of about 68 to 72 cents, clean landed, for clips running to good quality and staple, with inferior classes proportionally lower. This is rather higher than the trade anticipated or than is warranted by present conditions at the seaboard markets, but is considerably lower than the growers, who in many cases have preferred to consign rather than sell at home, expected to receive for their wools.

In the fleece wool sections the local operators have been responsible for most of the activity up to the present time, and it is doubtful whether the eastern houses will participate extensively unless the wools move on a basis showing some margin of profit.

Indications again point to another worsted goods season, though the woolen mills will undoubtedly share more in the general volume of business than for two years past.

The consumption of wool is still large and with the stock of old wools well cleaned up and new wools arriving slowly, the selection of offerings is not sufficient to attract large consumers into the market; therefore it is difficult to make reliable quotations. Generally speaking, however, the business outlook throughout the country is favorable, and, while there may be some fluctuations in wool caused by temporary local conditions, the clip will probably all be wanted and at about the present range of values.

BENEDICT &amp; LIVINGSTONE.

PULLED WOOLS. (*Scoured basis.*) (W. A. BLANCHARD.)

	1906.			1905.
	April.	May.	June.	June.
Brushed, Extra . . . . .	70 @ 75	70 @ 75	70 @ 73	70 @ 72
Fine A . . . . .	65 @ 68	65 @ 67	64 @ 67	65 @ 68
A Super . . . . .	58 @ 63	57 @ 62	57 @ 62	60 @ 65
B Super . . . . .	50 @ 54	50 @ 54	50 @ 54	54 @ 57
C Super . . . . .	40 @ 43	40 @ 43	40 @ 43	45 @ 47
Fine Combing . . . . .	62 @ 65	62 @ 64	60 @ 64	62 @ 65
Combing . . . . .	50 @ 52	50 @ 52	50 @ 52	52 @ 54
California, Extra . . . . .	68 @ 70	67 @ 70	67 @ 70	67 @ 70

REMARKS.

The conditions which prevailed during the previous quarter have continued through this, and pulled wools have been a secondary feature in the market. The only grades for which there has been an active demand were fine A's, fine combings, and such A and B supers as would scour clear and white. Of these last there is a limited production, as the majority of pulled wools, even those taken from so-called "Butchers' Skins," have a yellow cast. The lower grades, gray wools, and off-colored B's, have been slow of sale and have accumulated in pullers' hands. In fact, it has been apparent for some time that in the manufacture of cheap woollens only a minor percentage of wool is used. The continued favor shown to worsted fabrics has also had a depressing effect on pulled wools.

W. A. BLANCHARD.

FOREIGN WOOLS. (MAUGER & AVERY.)

	1906.		1905.	
	April.	May.	June.	June.
<b>Australian Combing:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	42 @ 43	42 @ 43	42 @ 43	43 @ 45
Good . . . . .	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	41 @ 42
Average . . . . .	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	39 @ 40
<b>Australian Clothing:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	43 @ 44	42 @ 43	42 @ 43	43 @ 44
Good . . . . .	40 @ 41	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	41 @ 43
Average . . . . .	38 @ 40	37 @ 38	37 @ 38	39 @ 40
<b>Sydney and Queensland:</b>				
Good Clothing . . . . .	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	38 @ 39	40 @ 43
Good Combing . . . . .	40 @ 42	40 @ 41	39 @ 40	40 @ 42
<b>Australian Crossbred:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	45 @ 47	44 @ 46	44 @ 46	43 @ 45
Average . . . . .	42 @ 44	42 @ 44	42 @ 44	37 @ 40
<b>Australian Lambs:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	45 @ 48	45 @ 45	45 @ 48	42 @ 45
Good . . . . .	41 @ 43	41 @ 43	41 @ 43	39 @ 40
Good Defective . . . . .	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	32 @ 34
<b>Cape of Good Hope:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	35 @ 37	35 @ 36	35 @ 36	34 @ 36
Average . . . . .	31 @ 33	31 @ 33	31 @ 33	31 @ 33
<b>Montevideo:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	35 @ 37
Average . . . . .	33 @ 35	33 @ 35	33 @ 35	32 @ 34
Crossbred, Choice . . . . .	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	38 @ 39	36 @ 38
<b>English Wools:</b>				
Sussex Fleece . . . . .	44 @ 45	44 @ 45	44 @ 45	40 @ 43
Shropshire Hogs . . . . .	43 @ 44	43 @ 44	43 @ 44	40 @ 43
Yorkshire Hogs . . . . .	42 @ 43	42 @ 43	42 @ 43	37 @ 39
Irish Selected Fleece . . . . .	42 @ 44	42 @ 44	42 @ 44	40 @ 42
<b>Carpet Wools:</b>				
Scotch Highland, White . . . . .	23 @ 24	23 @ 24	23 @ 24	24 @ 25
East India, 1st White Joria . . . . .	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	31 @ 32	35 @ 36
East India, White Kandahar . . . . .	26 @ 28	26 @ 28	25 @ 27	27 @ 29
Donskoi, Washed, White . . . . .	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	29 @ 30
Aleppo, White . . . . .	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	30 @ 32
China Ball, White . . . . .	23 @ 24	23 @ 24	23 @ 24	23 @ 24
"    "    No. 1, Open . . . . .	20 @ 21	20 @ 21	20 @ 21	19 @ 21
"    "    No. 2, Open . . . . .	14 @ 15	14 @ 15	14 @ 15	13 @ 15

FOREIGN WOOLS.

During the quarter ending with June there has been a moderate demand for fine Australian wools with prices in buyers' favor. Crossbred wools, with



the exception of South American, which were on a little less scoured basis, met with less inquiry than during the first quarter of the year. Manufacturers had covered their needs very fully, and the evident weakness on the part of holders of domestic wools gave them encouragement in the belief that they could buy medium fleeces on a lower basis than the world's prices of similar qualities of wool of Australian growth.

Cape of Good Hope wools have been in light supply, and have been very little inquired for. English wools, being relatively higher than domestic wools, have been in less request, and the custom house reports show considerable falling off in their importation.

The high views of holders of Scotch wools have checked their importation. East India wools have been in little more demand, but at prices much below what they had previously been sold at. Receipts of China wools have been larger, but the demand has kept pace with the supply.

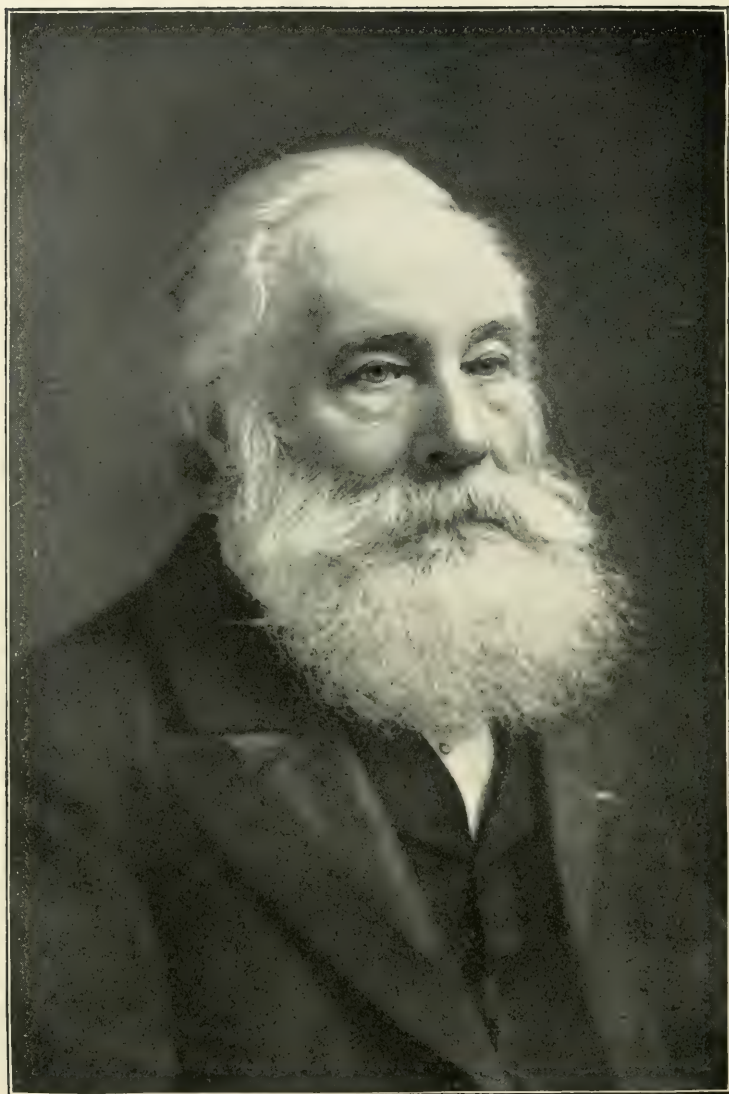
There has been considerable demand for the best descriptions of worsted warp wools for carpet purposes, and prices have been steadily maintained.

Reports from abroad have indicated light stocks, and high prices prevailing for the new clip in Asia. Manufacturers as a rule in this country are reducing their stocks, believing that they are near the point when values will decline and that it is more to their interest to buy as they require the wool, rather than has been their policy for the past few years, to anticipate their wants in expectation of larger profits.

MAUGER & AVERY.

JULY 3, 1906.





J. H. Perkins

# BULLETIN

OF THE

## National Association of Wool Manufacturers.

A QUARTERLY MAGAZINE

DEVOTED TO THE INTERESTS OF THE NATIONAL WOOL INDUSTRY.

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VOL. XXXVI.]

BOSTON, DECEMBER, 1906.

[No. IV.

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### ANNUAL WOOL REVIEW

WITH ESTIMATE OF DOMESTIC WOOL CLIP OF 1906  
AND OTHER STATISTICAL TABLES.

IN the pages which follow we present for the eighteenth consecutive year our annual estimate of the domestic wool product based upon the number of sheep fit for shearing April 1, 1906, together with numerous tables relating to sheep in various countries, the wool product, and to the manufactures of wool and their importation. We have followed our accustomed lines in gathering information, and we desire to acknowledge our indebtedness for valuable assistance to correspondents and others who have responded to our inquiries with helpful answers. We have no purpose to serve except to secure the most accurate information possible under prevailing conditions; and in this effort we have given due consideration to the views of the best informed wool growers, wool buyers, and dealers, together with those of officials in States where sheep are assessed for taxation. The result, it must be remembered, is an estimate and not an enumeration.

#### THE NUMBER OF SHEEP.

We place the number of sheep fit for shearing at 38,540,798, compared with 38,621,476 the preceding year. Decreases are to be found in some of the grazing States, because of larger shipments than usual last autumn, while in some of the States of the



Middle West the numbers have been increased because of the development of the industry, and because of more accurate information secured. Prices were again high for all kinds of sheep stock and the temptation to take advantage of them was partly responsible for the decreases shown in the table.

#### THERE WAS LESS CONTRACTING THAN IN 1905.

Contracting for the clip of 1906 was not so widespread and general as for that of the preceding year. Conditions compared with 1905 were quite reversed. During last autumn representatives of the buyers attempted to contract ahead, but their efforts met with little or no success, the experience of that year making growers wary of entering into binding obligations. This was especially true of Montana, where, as late as May, but little of the clip was sold, whereas at a corresponding time last year but little remained to be sold. The two parties necessary to conclude a bargain held back — the one from selling, because he expected higher prices for his wool, and the other from buying, because he felt conditions in the market did not justify the sums asked.

This lack of eagerness on the part of buyers to meet the views of holders caused a loud complaint to be registered that there was a "wool combine" and a "wool trust." But the reason for this failure to agree is obvious. Conditions in the two years were not similar. This year wool could be secured only at what seemed high prices,  $33\frac{1}{2}$  per cent higher than the average for ten years past; whereas, when contracts were made for 1905 it was the reverse. Then the advance in the price for sheep and wool had scarcely more than begun, and the growers, not knowing what the season would bring forth, accepted figures which looked attractive so far in advance of shearing and which were much higher than those to which they had been accustomed for some years. The sums offered seemed exceptionally good, and they were, but not so good as were obtained by those who waited.

As the season of 1905 developed and prices hardened, the growers, when approached in December on the question of contracts, were unwilling to let their clip of 1906 go at the rates paid for that of 1905. Later on the buyers felt it was unsafe to advance their offers, believing wool was as dear as it was likely to get, and they could better afford to await developments than

enter into contracts which might result disastrously for them. The same willingness to be governed by market conditions, prevailing at clipping time, was manifested by the growers, who, eased in their financial condition, with debts paid and comfortable balances in bank, were not obliged to part with their wool, which they felt would be needed for manufacturing purposes at prices better than those offered. The hopes of the sheepmen had been aroused, and they felt justified in asking and expecting a substantial increase over the prices of the preceding year.

The statistical situation, with comparatively small supplies on hand available for the mills — though some hold they were as heavy as in January — with the increased production of Australasia swallowed up without effort and without depressing prices, and with machinery fairly well occupied, seemed to support their view. The world was thought to be near the sheep's back and no heavy stocks existed from which to draw. But the course adopted by the users of wool, the arbiters of the price, in the two seasons was radically different. In 1905 they bought early and eagerly, anticipating future needs; in 1906 they purchased cautiously in small quantities and only for immediate needs. In the former year, early seeing the likelihood of higher prices for wool, they speedily purchased contracts for the clip of 1905. Not only that, but they went into the markets of Great Britain and secured English, Australian, and River Plate wools at prices regarded by English manufacturers as reckless and extravagant. Their judgment was vindicated and the wisdom of anticipating future wants became evident as time elapsed, and with it the very considerable appreciation in the prices of wools of nearly all descriptions.

#### A DIFFERENT POLICY PURSUED IN 1906.

This very appreciation, however, caused them to pursue a different policy in respect of the clip of 1906. It was a question whether the limit had not been reached, whether a reaction was not due, and whether it would be wise to buy freely, as in the previous year, or supply only immediate needs and buy from hand to mouth, so to speak. This latter course was quite generally adopted, not from any agreement but from a general belief that prices would not go higher and might go lower. They feared no rise in values over those prevailing; they gave no orders for contracts; they allowed stocks on hand to decrease; they bought

sparingly, if at all — in a word, they pursued a waiting policy. And if they had not, if they had adopted the tactics of the year previous, undoubtedly prices would have been advanced, making the position of the woollen manufacturer, already hard enough because of the eccentricity of the market, all the more difficult. In addition to this belief that the price limit had been reached, the user of wool felt the need of prudence because of the larger investment in the raw material necessitated by increased cost and the higher bank rates prevailing generally for money. The additional burdens thus occasioned caused more than customary caution.

#### EXTREME CAUTION NOT EXCEPTIONAL TO THIS COUNTRY.

This deliberate method of purchasers was not exceptional to this country; it was pursued early in the Australian sales and later at the auctions in London, in neither of which markets were the purchases on American account as heavy as in 1905. That higher prices were not paid the grower was largely due to the feeling that the danger point had been reached and that it would be hazardous to accede to his views of values.

That the belief in an agreement to "bear" prices was genuine is evidenced by the large amount of wool consigned to eastern dealers and the formation of the Montana Wool-Growers' Commission Company, with a capital stock of \$500,000 — 5,000 shares at \$100 each. Its purposes are to place the growers in a position to market their wool independently of the wool buyers, the company being authorized to receive wool on consignment, to borrow and loan money, and to conduct a regular wool selling business. Some of the best known sheepmen of the State are directors of the company, the organization of which may have been suggested by a similar company among the live-stock men, organized as a protest against increased commissions for selling live-stock at the various slaughtering centers.

#### FOREST RESERVE WORK EXTENDED.

During the year under review the work of establishing and developing forest reserves has been carried on with vigor. As indicated in the report of a year ago the evident purpose of those in charge of this work is not only to regulate and control the lands in the forest reserves but to secure like control over

the open range. This became manifest when President Roosevelt, in his annual message to Congress, said :

It is probable that the present grazing value of the open public range is scarcely more than half what it was once or might easily be again under careful supervision. The wide open policy which has prevailed has resulted in a few of the more powerful stockmen seizing control of the more valuable portions of the public grazing land, including streams, springs, and other sources of water supply, with the result that great injustice has been done to other citizens who under the law are entitled to just as good a chance. Not only this, but there have been numerous instances of fraudulent entry, illegal fencing, those responsible for the offence often going so far as to defend their unjust claims by force of arms. An extension of the general forest reserve policy to the open grazing lands, as is contemplated, will tend to remedy the evils mentioned and will provide a careful examination and classification of the lands with a view to giving each settler land enough to support his family and no more.

A bill providing for the establishment by Presidential proclamation of grazing districts upon the public lands of the United States, the classification of such lands and their regulation by the Secretary of Agriculture was introduced into the Senate April 3, 1906, by Senator Burkett, of Nebraska, but did not become a law.

Meanwhile, additions have been made to forest reserves already established, and new reserves have been created until the area now set aside in the reserves, exclusive of those in Alaska and Porto Rico, exceeds 107,000,000 acres. This total will be swelled considerably when the acreage of two additions and two new reserves is ascertained.

#### OBJECTIONS TO FOREST RESERVES MET.

To meet two objections urged, with some force and justice, against these reserves laws have been passed, one of which relates to the entry of agricultural lands within the reserves, and the other provides for the return to the State or Territory in which the reserves are situated of a portion of the fund received from the permits for grazing. The agricultural settlement bill was passed to enable agricultural tracts, which were found scattered here and there along the water courses in the reserves, to be taken up and entry made upon them under prescribed rules, each settler being limited to not exceeding 160 acres and not exceed-



ing one mile in length. This bill received the President's signature June 11, 1906.

In some counties in which large reserves were established complaint was made that by their establishment much—in some cases one-half—of their area was withdrawn from private ownership and consequently from taxation, thus creating an additional burden on the remaining land of the county. This hardship was relieved by providing that 10 per cent of all the money received from each forest reserve during every fiscal year shall be paid to the State or Territory in which the reserve is situated, to be expended, as the Legislature may prescribe, for the benefit of the public schools and public roads of the county or counties in which the reserves lie. It is provided that there shall not be paid for any county an amount equal to more than 40 per cent of the total income of such county from all sources.

The receipts for the past fiscal year from the various privileges speak eloquently for the Forest Service. A comparison with the sums received in 1904 and 1905—before the transfer to the Department of Agriculture—shows an increase of tenfold, which, it is predicted, will be augmented as the acreage of the reserves is enlarged and their carrying capacity increased. The receipts for the year ending June 30, 1904, were \$58,436.19; for 1905, \$73,276.15, and for 1906, \$767,219.96.<sup>1</sup> During the first six months of 1906 the revenue from grazing alone was over \$500,000.

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<sup>1</sup> Distribution of 10 per cent of this sum has been made among the following States and Territories:

Arizona	\$7,976.68
California	8,192.12
Colorado	12,541.79
Idaho	6,436.24
Kansas	102.00
Montana	5,869.04
Nevada	24.00
Nebraska	790.35
New Mexico	4,694.55
Oklahoma	120.95
Oregon	7,587.36
South Dakota	3,599.05
Utah	9,786.86
Washington	1,936.43
Wyoming	6,781.50
Alaska	283.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>\$76,721.92</b>

The collection of these grazing fees has not been made without protest. In one instance a flockmaster entered the Mount Ranier reserve in the State of Washington with a band of sheep without the permit required by the rules promulgated by the Department of Agriculture. He was immediately prosecuted by the United States district attorney; but the District Court discharged him, holding that no law had been passed by Congress making the act complained of a criminal offence. The regulations were formulated by the Department of Agriculture and the Court ruled, respecting the delegation of power to an administrative authority, that Congress cannot authorize any other branch of the Government to define that which is purely legislative, "and that is purely legislative which defines rights, permits things to be done or prohibits the doing thereof." Unless relief is given by Congress through legislation, the work of the Forest Service will be much hindered by this ruling, and it is intimated that Congress will be asked to pass the necessary laws.

#### LEASING OF PUBLIC RANGE OPPOSED.

The proposal to lease the public range has been generally opposed by the sheepmen, though in some associations a minority has favored it. The fear expressed is that leasing means the destruction of the small holder; that the man or corporation with large capital would soon control the range, and the weak man would be forced out of business. While it is said the belief is gaining ground in Wyoming that a grazing tax in the forest reserves has come to stay, opposition has been expressed to the fees charged for grazing as unreasonable and out of proportion to the benefits derived. The Wyoming wool-growers at their convention opposed the creation of any more reserves in the State, 9,000,000 acres being already embraced within them.

Complaints concerning the ravages wrought upon the flocks by wild animals, bears, mountain lions, wolves, etc., harbored by the reserves, continue to be made, and Government assistance in their extermination is urged. The Secretary of Agriculture, sympathizing with the request, suggested that forest rangers hunt and trap the pests, but it is thought that without the stimulus of liberal bounties there would be no inducement to perform this needed work. An expert has been sent into the field to study the problem, and some solution may result from his investigation.

## CLOSER SETTLEMENT CONTINUES.

Owing to closer settlement in a number of States, grazing lands for large flocks are being lessened continually, this being especially true of the Dakotas and Texas, and in a less measure of Montana. A few years ago in the Bismark land district more than 10,000,000 acres of Government land were subject to homestead entry. A year ago this was reduced to 1,250,000 acres, and at present it probably does not exceed 500,000 acres. During the last fiscal year, ending June 30, nearly 700,000 acres were homesteaded, almost 300,000 acres being taken the last quarter. In South Dakota the same rapid breaking up of the ranges into small farms is occurring, while in Texas more than 400,000 acres were placed on the market during the year, and the State's remaining 15,000,000 acres will be available as fast as existing pasture leases expire. But notwithstanding this tendency to contraction, entailing inconvenience and concern until readjustments are made, it is believed that the grazing lands of the country, which cannot be made available for other purposes under present known conditions of agriculture, amount to at least 300,000,000 acres, an extent equal to one-fifth the area of the United States. With the proper development of this vast tract and its proper management there ought to be sufficient pasturage to sustain not only present but greatly augmented numbers of sheep and cattle, and to make secure the immense financial interests involved in the industry.

## CONDITIONS ON THE RANGES.

Conditions on the winter range on the whole were again excellent, though in some parts of Idaho and Montana the weather was severe and feed was scarce. As a rule, however, no more favorable season could have been expected, and the flocks, having ample feed and being strong from shearing to shearing, came to the pens in good flesh, with wool of good length and sound staple. Wyoming wools, especially, showed evidence of better breeding, plenty of grass, and better care than usual. Winter losses were merely nominal, barring a few localities, notwithstanding a severer snow storm in March than any experienced since 1886. Twenty years ago such a storm would have decimated flocks, but now preparation and forethought prevented such waste, the good done by the snow for the summer range more than compensating for the losses it caused. Late cold rains were quite general about

lambing and shearing time. The lamb crop was unusually large, and notwithstanding unfavorable weather conditions a very large proportion of those dropped were saved. The summer was also excellent, enough rain falling to make the grass grow and afford succulent pasturage. It cured well, promising abundant feed for the winter; and notwithstanding a severe snow storm in Colorado, Wyoming, New Mexico, and Utah the latter part of October, the flocks went into winter quarters in excellent condition.

#### GOOD PRICES FOR WOOL AND SHEEP.

This year, as last, good prices were obtained by the flockmasters for their wool and sheep. In Utah and Wyoming considerable increase over those paid the previous year were secured. In these two States early contracts were made in 1905 at considerably lower rates than were paid in Montana later in the season. This year the prices in Utah and Wyoming were almost on a par with those paid in Montana. While they were a distinct disappointment to the growers of the latter State, they were still remunerative, while the growers of the former States were paid considerations perhaps higher than they ever received in their experience. Prices for sheep and lambs remain most satisfactory and the appreciation in the value of such stock within a dozen years is enormous. In 1893 sheep were sold as low as 75 cents and \$1 per head; to-day sheep of no better grade have been sold at \$5 and more per head. Prices in 1904 were from \$3.25 to \$4; one year later \$6 and \$6.25 were received for the same grade of stock, and range lambs have advanced until this autumn \$6.70 was paid per 100 pounds. Perhaps never before has the industry been so profitable; and though prosperity has been experienced for several seasons past, there are no indications of the ebb tide appearing.

#### THE SEARCH FOR A RANGE SHEEP.

The United States Department of Agriculture, through the Wyoming experiment station, is making efforts to develop a range sheep. At present \$5,000 are available for experiments, the object being to secure a sheep that will be most useful over the ranges of the western regions. Three hundred ewes and some Rambouillet bucks have been purchased, and their progeny will be closely selected for improvement.



Another undertaking of interest in Wyoming is the establishment of a test wool-scouring plant to determine the shrinkage. The work will be under the direction of the experiment department of the Wyoming University, the purpose being to make the wool-growers less dependent upon the views of buyers.

#### THE WOOL PRODUCT.

Owing to the greater weight of the average fleece, the clip, notwithstanding the small decrease in the number of sheep, is heavier in the grease by 3,426,692 pounds than that of a year ago, the heavier fleece being indicated in each of the three sections into which our table is divided. The total average increase in weight is one-tenth of a pound per fleece. The quantity of wool produced on the basis of 38,540,798 sheep, not including pulled wool, is 256,915,130 pounds as against 253,488,438 pounds one year ago. Its equivalent in scoured wool is 100,010,942 pounds.

The detailed statement of number of sheep, weight of fleece, with percentage of shrinkage of wool produced, and the equivalent in scoured wool, the average value per pound and the total value of the clip will be found in Table I. opposite.

#### PULLED WOOL.

The amount of pulled wool has been most carefully considered, and we have found no reason for varying the amount from that of last year — 42,000,000 pounds. The shrinkage has been placed at 30 per cent, instead of 33 per cent, making the yield equal to 29,400,000 pounds of clean wool.

The total production of the country for 1906 is, therefore, 298,915,130 pounds, equal to 129,410,942 pounds of scoured wool, 2,883,821 pounds in excess of the estimate for 1905. The excess is partly due to the decreased shrinkage, noticeable in the wools of all sections.

The grades and values of pulled wool (scoured basis) are estimated as follows by Mr. William A. Blanchard, of Boston :

Fine and fine medium .....	14,000,000 lbs.
Medium and coarse.....	15,400,000 lbs.
	<hr/>
	29,400,000 lbs.

TABLE I. WOOL PRODUCT OF THE UNITED STATES. — 1906.

States and Territories.	Quality.	No. of Sheep, April 1, 1906.	Average Weight of Fleece, 1906.	Wool Washed and Unwashed, 1906.	Per cent of Shrinkage, 1906.	Wool Scoured, 1906.	Average Value per Scoured Pound, Oct. 1.					Total Value, 1906.	States and Territories.
							1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.		
			Pounds.	Pounds.		Pounds.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.		
Maine	Medium	200,000	6	1,200,000	40	720,000	38	42	50	58	58	\$417,600	Maine.
New Hampshire	25% fine, 75% medium	63,000	6.2	390,500	50	195,500	41	42	50	57	57	111,221	New Hampshire.
Vermont	20% " 80% "	96,000	6	576,000	51	292,500	41	42	50	57	57	254,024	Vermont.
Massachusetts	Medium	26,000	5.8	150,800	42	77,464	38	42	50	57	57	49,854	Massachusetts.
Rhode Island	"	6,500	5.5	35,750	42	20,735	38	42	50	57	57	11,819	Rhode Island.
Connecticut	"	26,000	5.5	143,000	42	82,940	38	42	50	58	58	48,105	Connecticut.
New York	33% fine, 67% medium	725,000	6	4,350,000	50	2,175,000	43	48	55	60	59	1,283,250	New York.
New Jersey	Medium	32,000	5.5	176,000	50	88,000	38	42	50	60	59	41,920	New Jersey.
Pennsylvania	25% fine, 75% medium	850,000	6	5,100,000	50	2,550,000	48	53	58	63	62	1,581,000	Pennsylvania.
Delaware	Medium	100,000	5	500,000	45	225,000	38	42	50	56	55	102,725	Delaware.
Maryland	"	100,000	5	500,000	45	225,000	38	42	50	56	55	102,725	Maryland.
West Virginia	75% fine, 25% medium	480,000	5.5	2,640,000	48	1,320,800	50	63	65	60	60	823,680	West Virginia.
Kentucky	Medium	575,000	4.75	2,731,250	38	1,693,375	38	42	50	60	59	999,091	Kentucky.
Ohio	45% fine, 55% medium	1,850,000	6.25	11,562,500	50	5,781,250	48	53	58	63	62	3,854,475	Ohio.
Michigan	20% " 80% "	1,500,000	6.3	9,450,000	50	4,725,000	44	49	55	61	60	2,835,000	Michigan.
Indiana	15% " 85% "	800,000	6.25	5,000,000	45	2,250,000	43	46	53	58	57	1,567,500	Indiana.
Illinois	25% " 75% "	550,000	6.5	3,575,000	48	1,859,000	42	45	52	56	55	1,022,450	Illinois.
Wisconsin	20% " 80% "	800,000	6.75	5,400,000	40	2,800,000	40	45	55	62	61	1,684,800	Wisconsin.
Minnesota	20% " 80% "	350,000	7	2,450,000	52	1,176,000	40	43	50	54	53	623,280	Minnesota.
Iowa	30% " 70% "	500,000	6.5	3,250,000	50	1,625,000	44	49	55	58	56	910,000	Iowa.
Missouri	15% " 85% "	714,264	6.45	4,607,003	48	2,395,642	42	45	52	60	56	1,341,560	Missouri.
		10,314,264	6.18	63,710,903	48.4	32,870,406						\$19,357,404	
Virginia	Medium	350,000	5	1,050,000	38	525,000	41	45	52	60	59	\$640,150	Virginia.
North Carolina	"	205,000	4.25	871,250	42	505,325	38	42	50	56	55	277,929	North Carolina.
South Carolina	"	50,000	4	200,000	42	116,000	38	42	50	56	55	63,800	South Carolina.
Georgia	"	250,000	3.8	950,000	40	570,000	38	42	50	56	55	313,500	Georgia.
Florida	"	105,534	3	316,602	40	158,301	38	42	50	56	55	104,479	Florida.
Alabama	"	175,000	3.4	597,500	40	239,000	38	42	50	56	55	184,275	Alabama.
Mississippi	"	165,000	4	660,000	42	332,800	38	42	50	55	54	206,712	Mississippi.
Louisiana	"	155,000	3.7	573,500	42	332,630	38	42	50	56	55	182,947	Louisiana.
Arkansas	"	200,000	4.5	900,000	41	531,000	38	42	50	55	54	286,740	Arkansas.
Tennessee	"	275,000	4.25	1,168,750	40	589,375	38	42	50	58	58	388,673	Tennessee.
		1,930,534	4.1	7,906,977	40.3	4,724,091						\$2,649,205	
Kansas	Fine, fine med., and medium	170,000	7.5	1,275,000	67	420,750	44	46	52	67	65	\$273,488	Kansas.
Nebraska	"	250,000	7.5	1,875,000	67	618,750	44	46	52	67	65	402,188	Nebraska.
South Dakota	"	575,000	6.5	3,737,500	60	1,995,000	47	49	53	69	67	1,001,650	South Dakota.
North Dakota	"	375,000	6	2,437,500	60	1,462,500	47	49	53	69	67	836,910	North Dakota.
Montana	"	4,940,000	7.25	35,815,000	65	12,335,250	47	49	55	69	68	8,523,970	Montana.
Wyoming	"	4,531,000	7.25	32,849,750	68	10,511,920	47	49	55	70	69	7,253,225	Wyoming.
Idaho	"	2,300,000	7.35	16,905,000	67	5,578,650	47	49	55	69	66	3,681,909	Idaho.
Washington	"	575,000	8.5	4,887,500	70	1,466,250	47	49	53	69	66	956,725	Washington.
Oregon	"	1,800,000	8.5	15,300,000	70	4,590,000	50	52	55	69	68	3,121,200	Oregon.
California	33% fall, 67% spring	1,750,000	7.5	13,125,000	67	4,331,250	48	50	53	69	67	2,901,938	California.
Nevada	Fine, fine med., and medium	375,000	8	3,000,000	69	1,612,500	45	52	57	70	68	1,096,160	Nevada.
Utah	"	1,900,000	6.5	12,350,000	65	4,355,000	47	49	55	67	65	2,836,075	Utah.
Colorado	"	1,400,000	6.75	9,450,000	67	3,118,800	42	45	52	66	65	2,027,025	Colorado.
Arizona	"	680,000	6.5	4,420,000	66	1,502,800	47	49	53	67	65	976,820	Arizona.
New Mexico	"	2,900,000	5.5	15,950,000	62	6,061,000	42	45	50	65	63	3,818,430	New Mexico.
Texas	25% fall, 75% spring	1,440,000	6.5	9,360,000	66	3,182,400	50	52	57	70	67	2,132,208	Texas.
Oklahoma and Indian Territory	Fine, fine med., and medium	60,000	6	360,000	67	118,800	42	45	50	63	63	74,844	Oklahoma.
		26,296,000	7.05	185,297,250	68.3	62,416,445						\$41,774,774	
Totals		38,540,798	6.66	256,915,130	61.08	100,010,942	45.2	48.8	54.1	65.4	63.8	\$63,781,383	Totals.
Pulled Wool.				42,000,000	30	29,400,000	39.7	43.4	46.7	57.4	54.3	15,940,000	Pulled Wool.
Total Product, 1906				298,915,130		129,410,942						\$79,721,383	Total Product, 1906.



These quantities may again be subdivided into grades, with average values at Boston, thus :

	Pounds.	Value per pound, cents.	Total value.
Extra and fine A .....	4,000,000	66	\$2,640,000
A super .....	4,500,000	60	2,700,000
B super .....	8,750,000	50	4,375,000
C and low super .....	1,850,000	36	666,000
Fine combing .....	5,750,000	58	3,335,000
Combing .....	4,250,000	50	2,125,000
Shearlings .....	300,000	33	99,000
	29,400,000	.....	\$15,940,000

#### SLAUGHTER AND MOVEMENT OF SHEEP.

The total number of sheep killed yearly at four western centers, Chicago, Kansas City, St. Louis, and Omaha, and total yearly receipts of sheep at eastern seaboard markets, Boston, New York, Philadelphia and Baltimore, are reported in the "Cincinnati Price Current Annual," as follows :

TABLE II. — SEABOARD SHEEP RECEIPTS AND SLAUGHTER AT PRINCIPAL WESTERN POINTS.

	Western killings.	Seaboard receipts.
1887 .....	1,173,000	3,432,000
1888 .....	1,275,000	3,453,000
1889 .....	1,476,000	3,305,000
1890 .....	1,622,000	3,274,000
1891 .....	1,879,000	3,375,000
1892 .....	2,112,000	3,394,000
1893 .....	3,278,000	3,330,000
1894 .....	3,565,000	4,079,000
1895 .....	3,995,000	4,265,000
1896 .....	4,299,000	3,611,000
1897 .....	4,654,000	3,141,000
1898 .....	4,647,000	2,988,000
1899 .....	5,019,000	2,945,000
1900 .....	4,798,000	3,093,000
1901 .....	5,276,000	3,400,000
1902 .....	5,832,000	3,443,000
1903 .....	5,827,000	3,314,000
1904 .....	5,465,000	3,128,000
1905 .....	5,879,000	2,425,000



The foregoing table shows western killings about 50,000 larger than in any year since 1887, while the seaboard receipts are more than 500,000 fewer than in any year within the period of nineteen years.

TABLE III. — COMMERCIAL MOVEMENT OF SHEEP, 1896-1905, INCLUSIVE.

(From reports of Bureau of Animal Industry, U.S. Department of Agriculture.)

*Receipts and Shipments at Thirty Principal Points.*

	Receipts.	Shipments.	Left over.
1896 .....	13,903,856	5,655,365	8,248,491
1897 .....	13,074,548	6,674,315	6,400,233
1898 .....	13,100,157	5,679,200	7,420,957
1899 .....	13,343,559	5,606,431	7,737,128
1900 .....	15,535,925	7,545,409	7,990,516
1901 .....	15,803,068	5,821,635	9,981,433
1902 .....	17,573,466	6,884,230	10,689,236
1903 .....	19,199,680	8,333,433	10,866,242
1904 .....	19,637,182	9,340,147	10,297,035
1905 *.....	19,313,259	8,810,271	10,502,988

\* Fifty-four points.

The above table shows the receipts and shipments of sheep at thirty principal points for the calendar years 1896-1904, inclusive. Owing to changes in the work of the bureau the figures for 1905 are for fifty-four points. Presumably the most important points were included in the smaller number, but we are unable to indicate what increases were occasioned by the addition of the twenty-four places. The number reported in the columns of receipts and shipments does not mean that that number of animals was handled, for in the course of transit to final market the same ones may have been reported more than once. Nor does the last column show that all those "left over" were slaughtered. Many sheep were driven from these centers for feeding and for stock purposes. It does, however, indicate a steadily increasing movement of sheep to the great centers for slaughtering purposes. It is well to remember that these figures do not include sheep slaughtered on farms, in small cities, towns, and villages.

That the number available for slaughter continues about the same this year as for the two preceding is shown by the next table compiled from the Monthly Reports on Commerce and Finance.

It gives the receipts and shipments and the left overs for the first nine months of the calendar years, 1904-1906, at Chicago, Kansas City, Omaha, St. Louis, St. Paul, St. Joseph, Sioux City, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Denver, Fort Worth, Indianapolis, Louisville and Peoria, fourteen principal shipping points. The figures for the same places are not obtainable for earlier years.

RECEIPTS AND SHIPMENTS OF SHEEP AT CHICAGO AND THIRTEEN OTHER  
PRINCIPAL POINTS, FIRST NINE MONTHS OF YEARS 1904, 5, AND 6.

	Receipts.	Shipments.	Left over
1903 .....	5,924,033	1,750,751	4,173,282
1904 .....	7,885,137	3,019,628	4,865,509
1905 .....	8,715,925	3,083,979	5,631,946
1906 .....	8,815,636	3,273,328	5,542,308

WEIGHT AND SHRINKAGE.

The average weight of fleece is 6.66 pounds, an increase from 6.56 pounds in 1905. The weight for 1904 was 6.50 pounds; for 1903, 6.25 pounds; for 1902, 6.50 pounds, and for 1901, 6.33 pounds. The average shrinkage is 61.08 per cent, a decrease as compared with 61.3 per cent in 1905. For 1904 the shrinkage was 61.6 per cent; for 1903, 60.8 per cent; for 1902, 60 per cent, and for 1901, 60.6 per cent.

The estimates of wool production for nineteen years, together with the scoured equivalents for the same term of years, are as follows:

TABLE IV.—FLEECE AND PULLED WOOL, WASHED AND IN THE GREASE.

	Product.	Decrease.	Increase.
1888..... pounds	301,876,121	293,829	.....
1889..... "	295,779,479	6,096,642	.....
1890..... "	309,471,856	.....	13,699,377
1891..... "	307,401,507	2,073,349	.....
1892..... "	333,018,405	.....	25,606,898
1893..... "	348,538,138	.....	15,519,733
1894..... "	325,210,712	23,327,426	.....
1895..... "	294,296,726	30,913,986	.....
1896..... "	272,474,708	21,822,018	.....
1897..... "	259,153,251	13,321,457	.....
1898..... "	266,720,684	.....	7,567,433
1899..... "	272,191,390	.....	5,470,646
1900..... "	288,636,621	.....	16,445,291
1901..... "	302,502,382	.....	13,865,707
1902..... "	316,341,032	.....	13,838,650
1903..... "	287,450,000	28,891,032	.....
1904..... "	291,783,032	.....	4,393,032
1905..... "	295,488,438	.....	3,705,406
1906..... "	298,715,130	.....	3,426,692

## SCOURED WOOL, FLEECE AND PULLED.

	Product.	Decrease.	Increase.
1888..... pounds	136,591,955	3,964,730	.....
1889..... "	134,795,350	1,796,605	.....
1890..... "	139,628,220	.....	4,832,870
1891..... "	139,326,703	301,517	.....
1892..... "	145,300,318	.....	5,973,615
1893..... "	151,103,776	.....	5,803,458
1894..... "	140,292,268	10,811,508	.....
1895..... "	125,718,690	14,573,578	.....
1896..... "	115,284,579	10,434,111	.....
1897..... "	111,365,987	3,918,592	.....
1898..... "	111,661,581	.....	295,594
1899..... "	113,958,468	.....	2,296,887
1900..... "	118,223,120	.....	4,264,652
1901..... "	126,814,690	.....	8,591,570
1902..... "	137,912,085	.....	11,097,395
1903..... "	124,366,405	13,545,680	.....
1904..... "	123,935,147	431,258	.....
1905..... "	126,527,121	.....	2,591,974
1906..... "	129,410,942	.....	2,883,821

## VALUE OF THE WOOL CLIP.

Our estimates are based on the value of the scoured pound at the seaboard, which for the last five years has been as follows :

## SCOURED WOOL.

	Fleece and pulled.	Total value.	Value per pound.	
			Fleece.	Pulled.
	<i>Pounds.</i>		<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Cents.</i>
1901 .....	126,814,690	\$51,164,709	41.1	36 7
1902 .....	137,912,085	60,679,127	45.2	39.7
1903 .....	124,366,405	58,775,373	48 8	43.4
1904 .....	123,935,147	64,948,959	54.1	46.7
1905 .....	126,527,121	80,415,514	65.4	57.4
1906 .....	129,410,942	79,721,383	63.8	54.3

The total value of the wool clip for the year is about the same as last year, being less than one per cent smaller. The average value per pound of the fleece and the pulled wool has decreased 2.4 per cent and 5.5 per cent, respectively. The value of the clip has decreased from \$80,415,514 in 1905, to \$79,721,383 in 1906.

## AVAILABLE SUPPLIES, 1901-1906.

Table V. contains an estimate of the available wool supplies for the year 1906-7, that is, pending the next clip, excluding imports after October 1, and supplies in manufacturers' hands, with the figures for corresponding years given for comparison. It is based on the Boston Commercial Bulletin's record of supplies in dealers' hands on January 1 last, the Department of Commerce and Labor's figures of imports, and the figures of the preceding tables.



TABLE V. — AVAILABLE SUPPLIES.

	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
Wool clip, fleece and pulled . .	302,502,328	316,341,032	287,450,000	291,783,032	295,488,433	298,915,130
Domestic wool on hand January 1 . . . .	204,345,500	139,519,718	110,499,572	112,081,000	41,873,811	72,461,443
Foreign wool on hand January 1 . . . .	29,483,500	13,619,600	12,372,000	15,699,000	11,562,000	24,414,000
In bond January 1 . . . .	54,163,204	31,064,222	28,319,246	33,735,970	41,181,360	56,788,129
Foreign wool imported, January 1 to July 1 . . . .	59,560,310	100,858,377	102,025,924	102,167,315	164,730,358	119,597,637
Total . . .	650,054,842	601,402,949	540,666,742	555,466,317	554,835,967	572,176,339
Imports of wool, July 1 to October 1 . . . . .		34,269,893	38,700,120	36,403,499	44,388,908	35,331,909
Total to October 1 . . .		635,672,842	579,366,862	591,869,816	599,224,875	607,508,248

The gross imports for the three months ending September 30, 1906, are as follows:

1906.	Class I.	Class II.	Class III.	Total.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
July . . . . .	1,383,084	733,194	10,265,314	12,381,592
August . . . . .	3,387,651	1,077,231	9,557,931	14,022,813
September . . . . .	792,019	724,651	7,410,834	8,927,504
Total . . . . .	5,562,754	2,535,076	27,234,079	35,331,909

For the corresponding three months of the previous year the imports were:

Class I.	Class II.	Class III.	Total.
<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
12,900,013	6,629,082	24,859,813	44,388,908

## THE ANNUAL WOOL SUPPLY.

Table VI. shows the quantity of wool retained for consumption in the United States from 1890 to date. As the wool clip of the year reaches the market during the governmental fiscal year, the clip of any year is added to the imports of the fiscal year beginning July 1, preceding, so that the total supply for a series of years is accurately indicated by this combination, however it may differ from the available supplies in any one year of the series.

TABLE VI.—WOOL PRODUCED, IMPORTED, EXPORTED, AND RETAINED FOR CONSUMPTION.

Fiscal Year.	Total Imports.	Exports, Domestic and Foreign.	NET IMPORTS.		Production	Retained for Consumption.	FINE WOOL.	
			Classes I. and II.	Class III.			Retained for Consumption.	Per cent of Foreign.
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	
1890-91..	129,303,648	2,930,045	36,783,501	89,882,024	309,474,856	435,848,459	345,966,435	10.63
1891-92..	148,670,652	3,210,019	53,350,167	92,312,922	307,101,507	452,562,140	360,249,218	14.81
1892-93..	172,433,838	4,310,495	46,189,082	122,026,119	333,018,405	501,141,748	379,115,629	12.18
1893-94..	55,152,585	6,497,654	7,167,380	42,007,798	348,538,138	397,193,069	355,185,271	2.02
1894-95..	206,081,890	6,622,190	98,388,318	105,402,507	325,210,712	524,722,428	419,319,921	23.46
1895-96..	230,911,473	12,972,217	126,966,355	97,918,882	294,296,726	512,235,982	414,317,100	30.64
1896-97..	350,852,026	8,700,598	235,282,735	112,141,457	272,474,708	614,646,136	502,485,908	46.84
1897-98..	132,797,302	2,625,971	47,480,033	82,810,437	259,153,251	389,322,582	306,512,145	15.50
1898-99..	76,736,209	14,095,335	3,349,870	60,947,423	266,720,684	329,361,558	268,387,135	1.25
1899-1900	155,918,455	7,912,557	44,680,424	105,525,753	272,191,330	420,197,228	314,671,445	14.20
1900-01..	103,583,505	3,790,067	32,865,841	67,127,159	288,636,621	384,430,059	321,502,465	10.10
1901-02..	166,576,966	3,227,941	69,315,286	93,842,199	302,502,382	465,851,407	371,694,390	18.65
1902-03..	177,147,796	3,511,914	54,747,533	119,397,268	316,341,032	484,634,014	370,569,616	14.63
1903-04..	173,742,834	3,182,803	55,999,345	114,880,236	287,450,000	458,010,031	345,129,795	16.22
1904-05..	249,135,746	2,561,648	134,407,321	112,292,726	291,783,032	538,357,130	426,966,402	31.54
1905-06..	201,688,668	5,642,859	98,336,137	97,902,153	295,488,438	491,534,247	393,632,094	24.99

The proportion of fine wools decreased from 31.54 per cent in 1904-5 to 24.99 per cent in the year under review. Though showing a falling off in excess of 5.5 per cent, it is still very considerably above the average year. The total imports of Classes I. and II., while approaching the hundred million mark, showed a decrease of 36,071,184 pounds. The imports of Class III. wools, no doubt owing to their higher prices, show a falling off of 14,390,573 pounds. The reexports were more than double those of the preceding year and have been exceeded but six times since 1890.

The following table, computed from Table VI., shows the total

supplies for three five-year periods, the ten years 1893-1902, and the years 1903, 1904, 1905, and 1906, with an average for the four years :

**TABLE VII.—WOOL SUPPLY, 1888-1906 — DOMESTIC PRODUCTION, AND IMPORTS LESS EXPORTS.**

Fiscal years ending June 30.	All wools.	Fine wools.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
1888-1892. Five years, total.....	2,122,407,842	1,686,818,840
Annual average.....	424,481,568	337,363,768
1893-1897. Five years, total.....	2,549,920,592	2,070,423,829
Annual average.....	509,984,118	414,084,766
1898-1902. Five years, total.....	1,988,771,621	1,582,374,537
Annual average.....	397,554,309	316,474,907
1893-1902. Ten years, total.....	4,538,692,213	3,652,798,366
Annual average.....	453,869,221	365,279,837
1903.....	489,966,914	370,569,646
1904.....	458,010,031	345,129,795
1905.....	538,357,130	426,066,402
1906.....	491,534,247	393,632,094
Annual average, four years.....	494,467,080	383,849,484

#### LONDON SALES.

The sixth of the London sales of Colonial wool for 1905 commenced November 28 and closed December 9. The net amount available was 109,000 bales, of which 107,000 were sold, leaving 2,000 to be carried over into this year. The distribution was as follows :

Home consumption.....	51,000 bales.
Continent.....	54,500 "
America.....	1,500 "

About 82,000 bales of the new clip appeared in the catalogues. The sales were largely attended, and the competition was animated. The series closed with a good tone, the market being practically cleared of all supplies.

The following statement shows the supplies and deliveries of Colonial wool in the London market for the first five series of 1906, as compared with the same series of last year, 632,000 bales being sold and 8,000 being held over for the sixth series.

London Market.		1906.	1905.
Held over from December.....		2,000 bls.	1,000 bls.
Net Imports for the first 5 series....		638,000 "	646,000 "
		<hr/>	<hr/>
		640,000 bls.	647,000 bls.
Home Consumption....	347,000 bls.	347,000 bls.	
Continental "	254,000 "	253,000 "	
America "	31,000 "	44,000 "	
	<hr/>	<hr/>	
Total sold (first-hand wools)		632,000 bls.	644,000 bls.
		<hr/>	<hr/>
Held over.....		8,000 bls.	3,000 bls.

The net imports amounted to 638,000 bales, and as there were 2,000 bales held over from last year, the total available supply was 640,000 bales. The quantity available for each sale and the destination of the purchases are shown in the table which follows :

## LONDON SALES — COLONIAL WOOL, FIRST FIVE SERIES, 1906. BALES.

	Available.	England.	Continent.	America.	Total Sales.	Held Over.
Jan. 1, 1906.....						2,000
Jan. 16-Feb. 1....	164,000	77,000	78,000	5,000	160,000	4,000
March 13-24.....	131,000	68,000	45,000	11,000	124,000	7,000
May 8-23.....	166,000	91,000	57,000	9,000	157,000	9,000
July 10-20.....	116,000	57,000	36,000	4,000	97,000	19,000
Sept. 21-Oct. 4....	102,000	54,000	38,000	2,000	94,000	8,000
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
Totals.....		347,000	254,000	31,000	632,000	8,000

The total sales were 632,000 bales distributed as follows : to England, 347,000 bales ; the Continent, 254,000 bales ; to America, 31,000 bales, and 8,000 bales were held over for the next series, which is to commence November 27, the entries closing November 19.

Of the fifth series Helmuth Schwartze & Co. say :

All really good merino sold throughout at full July closing rates and latterly even somewhat above that level. Medium and inferior wools were at first 5 per cent easier, but hardened towards the close and are now practically on a par with July.



In crossbreds the finest wool sold fully on a par with the close of last series, but medium and coarse sorts showed considerable irregularity, the brighter and showier lots selling at from par to 5 per cent, shabby and poor wools at from 5 to 10 per cent below July.

The preceding tabular statements refer only to the London market. Adding the transit wools and the direct imports, the total deliveries to the trade are stated by Helmuth Schwartze & Co. to be as follows:

Distribution of Colonial Wool through England and direct.	Total Season. 1904.	Total Season. 1905.	Five Series. 1905.	Five Series. 1906.
	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>
Sold to England . . . .	625,000	688,000	633,000	693,000
" " Continent . . .	874,000	1,023,000	911,000	1,132,000
" " America . . . .	77,000	131,000	128,000	90,000
	1,576,000	1,842,000	1,672,000	1,915,000

The sales in five series exceeds by 73,000 bales the total for the season of 1905. America reduced her purchases from 128,000 bales to 90,000 bales.

#### MARKET CONDITIONS SUMMARIZED.

Messrs. Buxton, Ronald & Co., in their annual report for 1906, summarize market conditions as follows:

Merinos all around are now par to 5 per cent lower than a year ago.

Crossbreds, fine qualities, about  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent higher, medium and coarse qualities, 10 per cent and  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent higher, respectively, than a year ago.

On the question of supply, evidence would seem to show that the only important increase will be once more from Australasia, which it is now estimated will market some 150,000 to 170,000 additional bales. South African conditions have been such as to render an increase extremely unlikely. South America's figures should also show but little change, as the good season in Uruguay will be about balanced by the reduced quantities from the South, where the season has been unpropitious and losses have been severe.

From January, 1905, to July, 1906, values of crossbred wools were well high continually in the ascendant, and the culminating

point was reached just previous to midsummer, when the highest prices known for about thirty years were current.

"Dalgety's Annual Review," concerning the clip of 1905-6, says:

It is difficult to define accurately in general terms the Australasian clip as a whole, the conditions in various districts of the States being often so different. It can broadly be stated, however, that the last shearing produced a clip of which the most damaging feature was the amount of tender wool, caused by the long, dry summer and autumn being followed by a superabundance of feed in winter and spring. This flush of feed naturally led to a liberal supply of yolk, and though most growers considered that their wool was lighter than usual, such was really not the case. Certainly the sheep cut less weight, but that was because the wool was not so robust nor so sound; and it is safe to say that the clean scoured yield per head would be much below that of the previous season. The most gratifying feature of the clip was its comparative freedom from vegetable defects while it was also less earthy and, consequently, a better color than usual.

The main features of the year were thus summarized:

1. High average value of all wool.
2. Remarkable closeness of the value of crossbred and merino descriptions.
3. Boom led by the Americans in fine crossbreds.
4. Large proportion of the clip sold in the colonial markets.

The production for export during the past twelve months amounted to 1,869,455 bales from Australasia, valued at £13 10 s. 3 d. per bale, giving an aggregate of £25,261,011, as compared with 1,595,731 bales, valued at £12 13 s. 1 d. per bale, or a total of £20,192,684 for the preceding season, showing a gain of £5,068,327.

TABLE VIII. — AUSTRALASIAN WOOL PRODUCTION.

*Compiled from Customs Returns.*

	SEASONS OF				
	1905-6.	1904-5.	1903-4.	1902-3.	1901-2.
	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>
New South Wales . . . . .	816,000	660,000	510,000	535,000	760,000
Victoria . . . . .	267,500	238,000	225,000	225,000	225,000
Queensland . . . . .	176,000	99,000	115,000	88,000	118,000
South Australia . . . . .	119,000	157,000	87,000	85,000	104,500
Western Australia . . . . .	42,500	35,000	32,000	32,000	32,000
Tasmania . . . . .	33,500	30,000	26,000	26,000	28,000
New Zealand . . . . .	415,000	377,000	372,000	426,000	397,000
<b>Total . . . . .</b>	<b>1,869,500</b>	<b>1,596,000</b>	<b>1,367,000</b>	<b>1,415,000</b>	<b>1,664,500</b>

The increase over last year is 273,500 bales, the four districts of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, and New Zealand supplying very considerable increases, while South Australia showed a diminished production of 38,000 bales. In the colonial markets the sales of wool were 72 per cent of the production, an increase of 4 per cent over last year and 10 per cent greater than the record of 1901-2. Although the increase in the size of the clip was 273,500 bales, but little more wool was consigned to London than in the previous season. The lambs' wool dealt in amounted to 86,190 bales. Crossbred sales in the Australasian markets aggregated 335,727 bales or 25 per cent of the total sales, exactly the same proportion as last year. The actual increase sold was 63,272 bales. In Tasmania and Victoria there was a considerable percentage of increase in crossbred wool, due to the increased attention paid to sheep and lambs intended for the frozen meat trade.

While the total clip is increasing rapidly in the number of bales reported, it must be taken into account that some, to whose opinion deference must be shown, consider that present bales contain fewer pounds than formerly, and that less scoured wool is exported than was the case some years ago. This seems to be supported by the fact that though the gain in value per bale is but  $6\frac{3}{4}$  per cent the average advance per pound has been more than that, Dalgety attributing the discrepancy "to the tendency of growers to still further reduce the weight of their bales." If these contentions be true, then it may be that fewer pounds of wool available for the user were produced than the number of bales exported would indicate.

A noticeable fact in the production is that whereas previous to the drought 120 millions of sheep yielded 1,959,811 bales, last year 93 million sheep produced 1,869,455 bales, indicating a considerably increased average weight of fleece. Twelve years ago it took the fleeces and skirtings from 61 sheep to fill a bale, but the past year 50 sheep did it, the price per bale, meanwhile, rising from £10 10 s. to £13 10 s. and the net return per sheep increasing 1 s.  $11\frac{1}{2}$  d.

From the season of 1894-5 to that of 1903-4 the clip of Australia declined over 620,000 bales. Owing to the wonderful recuperative powers of the country that loss, registered in nine years, will be made good in one-third the time, and a clip surpassing that of 1894-5 is expected for the present season.

## WOOL EXPORTS FROM AUSTRALASIA.

	SEASONS OF				
	1905-6.	1904-5.	1903-4.	1902-3.	1901-2.
	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>
New South Wales . . . . .	741,194	597,174	479,085	496,108	628,488
Victoria . . . . .	431,406	381,016	314,218	324,404	403,096
Queensland . . . . .	102,045	89,374	57,732	45,653	77,348
South Australia . . . . .	124,472	108,838	98,484	96,524	111,876
West Australia . . . . .	42,455	35,018	32,567	32,522	32,538
Tasmania . . . . .	13,248	7,549	12,710	19,557	14,790
New Zealand . . . . .	414,635	376,765	372,146	425,954	396,949
	1,869,455	1,595,734	1,366,942	1,440,722	1,664,885

## AUSTRALASIAN SHEEP.

The following table shows the number of sheep in Australasia for the past five years :

TABLE IX.—NUMBER OF SHEEP AT CLOSE OF YEAR IN AUSTRALASIA, 1901-1905.

	1905.	1904.	1903.	1902.	1901.
New South Wales . . . . .	39,494,207	34,531,145	28,663,983	26,449,424	41,857,099
Victoria . . . . .	11,455,115	10,167,691	10,500,000	10,500,000	10,841,790
Queensland . . . . .	12,535,231	10,843,470	8,392,044	7,213,985	10,030,971
South Australia . . . . .	6,524,300	5,298,720	5,000,000	4,880,540	5,060,540
West Australia . . . . .	3,140,360	2,600,633	2,554,920	2,500,000	2,542,844
Tasmania . . . . .	1,556,460	1,597,053	1,700,000	1,679,518	1,792,481
Australia and Tasmania . .	74,705,673	65,038,712	56,810,947	53,423,467	72,125,725
New Zealand . . . . .	19,130,875	18,280,805	18,954,500	20,342,727	20,233,099
Total . . . . .	93,836,548	83,319,517	75,765,447	73,766,194	92,358,824

The flocks, notwithstanding the multiplication of rabbits which are said to consume 40 per cent of the available feed, the division of estates for closer settlement, and the large number of sheep slaughtered for home consumption and export, showed during the year the great increase of 10,517,031 head, the largest yearly addition which perhaps has ever taken place.

As a result of this unusual increase predictions are made that the clip for the current wool year will be in excess of 2,000,000 bales and the largest ever produced. The record clip



is that of 1894-5 of 1,959,811 bales, and it is conservative to conclude that from an increase of more than ten million sheep there will result at least enough bales to carry the total above the two million mark. Estimates of the increase vary from 160,000 to 250,000 bales, some favoring the former figure base their opinion on a lighter yield of one pound per sheep than last year over a large area. As a guide it is well to recall that the increases in 1904 and 1905 were 229,000 and 273,500 bales, respectively, while the increases in the number of sheep were 7,554,070 and 10,517,031, respectively.

The figures of sheep slaughtered, together with the population of the several States in 1905, are:

	Sheep Slaughtered.	Population.
New South Wales .....	4,213,870	1,496,050
Victoria .....	2,305,650	1,218,570
South Australia .....	595,270	374,390
Queensland .....	600,000	528,050
Tasmania .....	326,580	179,300
West Australia .....	443,200	254,700
New Zealand .....	6,408,600	857,540
	<hr/> 14,893,170	<hr/> 4,908,600

#### CAPE WOOLS.

The importations of Cape wools into Great Britain as reported by Messrs. Helmuth Schwartz & Co. for the last six years are:

	1905.	1904.	1903.	1902.	1901.	1900.
Bales.....	186,317	187,597	228,163	220,404	214,380	113,597

Of this total in 1905, 24,000 bales were forwarded into the interior, 119,000 bales to the Continent, and 500 bales to America. About 37,000 bales were catalogued for the various London sales. There were forwarded from the Cape direct to the Continent 22,449 bales, making the total exports of Cape wool 208,766 bales.

Up to the fifth series of 1906, 185,641 bales were imported, of which 33,000 bales were forwarded to the interior, 118,900 bales to the Continent, and 100 bales to America. Shipments direct to the Continent from the Cape totaled 38,998 bales. The total receipts up to September 17, 1906, 224,639 bales, were 15,873 bales in excess of the season's importations in 1905. About 33,000 bales were offered at the London sales.

## RIVER PLATE WOOLS.

The export business of River Plate wools is done between the 1st of July and the 30th of April. The following shows the arrivals of these wools at the various European ports for the last thirteen years :

TABLE X.—IMPORTS OF RIVER PLATE WOOLS INTO EUROPE BETWEEN JULY 1 AND APRIL 30, SUCCEEDING, 1894 TO 1906 INCLUSIVE.<sup>1</sup>

*In thousands of bales.*

Year.	Dunkirk.	Havre.	Antwerp.	Bremen.	Hamburg.	Other Ports.	Total.	Of which from Montevideo.
1894	149	14	68	38	56	15	340	34
1895	133	7	78	36	46	30	330	45
1896	195	20	90	50	50	35	440	70
1897	161	11	76	33	58	12	351	35
1898	163	8	80	80	81	56	468	80
1899	221	14	71	45	81	29	461	54
1900	169	8	67	50	61	33	388	45
1901	94	16	52	29	44	35	270	55
1902	208	12	79	34	89	78	500	54
1903	172	9	62	35	65	67	410	51
1904	149	8	58	38	70	48	371	41
1905	132	6	70	35	70	68	381	45
1906	138	33	56	28	73	85	413	56

<sup>1</sup> Wool circular of Wenz & Co., Reims, May, 1906.

The production for ten years (twelve months, October 1 to September 30) is as follows :

SEASON OF	ARGENTINA.			URUGUAY.			GRAND TOTALS.		
	Quantity.	Ave. weight, Bales.	Total weight.	Quantity.	Ave. weight, Bales.	Total weight.	Quantity.	Ave. weight, Bales.	Total weight.
	Bales. a.	Kilo. b.	Metric Tons. c.	Bales. a.	Kilo. b.	Metric Tons. c.	Bales. a.	Kilo. b.	Metric Tons. c.
1895-96.....	443,0	380	168,3	100,0	466	46,6	543,0	396	214,9
1896-97.....	486,0	412	200,3	88,0	466	41,0	574,0	420	241,3
1897-98.....	495,0	417	206,5	90,0	466	42,0	585,0	424	248,5
1898-99.....	487,0	425	207,2	81,0	469	38,0	568,0	431	245,2
1899-00.....	465,0	429	199,4	85,0	470	40,0	550,0	435	239,4
1900-01.....	405,0	445	181,0	86,5	471	40,8	491,5	451	221,8
1901-02.....	444,0	445	197,6	86,0	470	40,4	530,0	449	238,0
1902-03.....	481,0	412	198,4	104,0	471	49,0	585,0	422	247,4
1903-04.....	416,0	420	174,7	86,0	470	40,4	502,0	428	215,1
1904-05.....	411,0	417	171,2	82,5	472	38,9	493,5	425	210,1

a. Two 00 omitted, thus 443,0 = 443,000.

b. Kilo equals 2,2046 pounds.

c. Metric ton equals 2,204.6 pounds.

There has been no sheep census in Argentina since 1895, when the number was reported to be 74,379,562; but the editor of the "Boletín Mensual" assures us it is certain that the number is not now over 75,000,000.

The annexed table shows the exports of wool from Argentina since 1885. They sustain the contention that there has been no increase in numbers of sheep.

EXPORTS OF WOOL FROM THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC, 1885-1905 INCLUSIVE.\*

Year.	Metric Tons.	Year.	Metric Tons.	Year.	Metric Tons.
1885	128,393	1892	154,635	1899	237,111
1886	132,130	1893	123,230	1900	101,113
1887	109,164	1894	161,907	1901	228,358
1888	131,743	1895	201,353	1902	197,936
1889	141,774	1896	187,619	1903	192,989
1890	118,406	1897	205,571	1904	168,599
1891	138,606	1898	221,286	1905	191,007

The following table shows the number of live sheep and the number of carcasses exported from 1896 to 1905, inclusive:

EXPORTS OF SHEEP, LIVE AND SLAUGHTERED, FROM THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC, 1896-1905 INCLUSIVE.\*

Year	Number.		Total.
	Live.	Refrigerated.	
1896 .....	512,016	1,992,304	2,504,320
1897 .....	504,128	2,155,169	2,659,297
1898 .....	577,813	2,542,529	3,120,342
1899 .....	543,458	2,485,949	3,029,407
1900 .....	198,102	2,385,482	2,583,584
1901 .....	25,746	2,755,788	2,781,534
1902 .....	122,501	3,423,285	3,545,786
1903 .....	167,747	3,427,783	3,595,530
1904 .....	28,127	3,673,778	3,701,905
1905 .....	120,166	3,325,124	3,445,290

The number has remained fairly steady for the past four seasons, the total for 1905 being the smallest since 1902, and only 324,948 larger than that of 1898.

\* "Boletín Mensual de Estadística y Comercio."

During the past three seasons more Argentine wools have been imported than formerly. The following table shows the increase has been altogether in the wools of Class I.:

IMPORTS INTO UNITED STATES OF ARGENTINE WOOLS FOR YEARS 1904, 1905 AND 1906, IN POUNDS.

Year.	Class I.	Class II.	Class III.
1904 .....	18,018,443	100,548	10,049,069
1905 .....	41,094,617	362,562	6,238,388
1906 .....	36,352,480	.....	5,815,447

The amount imported in 1906 of Class I. wools is more than double the total of 1904, and the proportionate decrease over 1905 is less than that of Australasian wools. With these increased imports comes a corresponding increase in the direct shipments — 16,014,308 in 1904; 32,688,007 in 1905, and 29,582,923 in 1906. The imports of Class III. wools have decreased almost one-half.

The above figures show that what is occurring in England is being experienced in this country — increased use of Argentine wools, in the consumption of which the Continent has hitherto held an almost complete monopoly. Bradford's imports from Argentina in 1904 were 13,367,083 pounds, and 26,675,467 pounds in 1905.

The imports of Argentine wools into the United States during the last fiscal year, both through Europe and direct, amounted to 42,167,927 pounds, a decrease of 5,527,640 pounds as compared with last year. Of the total quantity, 36,352,480 pounds were Class I. wools and 5,815,447 pounds were Class III. wools; of the decrease all but 422,941 pounds were in Class I. wools.

Wenz & Co., under date of May, write concerning the Argentine flocks and season as follows:

Climatic conditions being again favorable, flocks were in good condition throughout the year; lambing proved most satisfactory and there was little mortality. In spite of this the clip seems to be no larger than that of the previous year.

Shearing was somewhat delayed by rain and it was not until the beginning of October that the first wools made their appearance. The clip taken as a whole was a good one. It was better grown, about as fine and clean as the preceding one and, if anything, lighter in grease. Southern wools were particularly good, while those from the *pasto fuerte* country were again poor.

There was an active inquiry for merinos throughout the season.



Strange to say medium grades which were bought for the terminal markets sold at times actually dearer than super wools. Entre Rios wools were good and were taken mainly for manufacturers' account. Crossbred lambs met a strong demand from the same quarter and frequently sold at higher nominal prices than the corresponding fleece wool, which was an entirely new feature.

America, though not yet counting as one of the chief buyers, took a fair amount, about the same as last year, to which must be added the export from Montevideo, which shows that South American wools are now a standard quality in that country.

The sheep that are ousted by the plough from the northern territory and from those parts of the province of Buenos Ayres which lie within easy reach of the ports are moved south to Rio Negro, Chubut, and Santa Cruz. Of the above the first named seems best adapted for raising sheep.

#### THE COURSE OF PRICES.

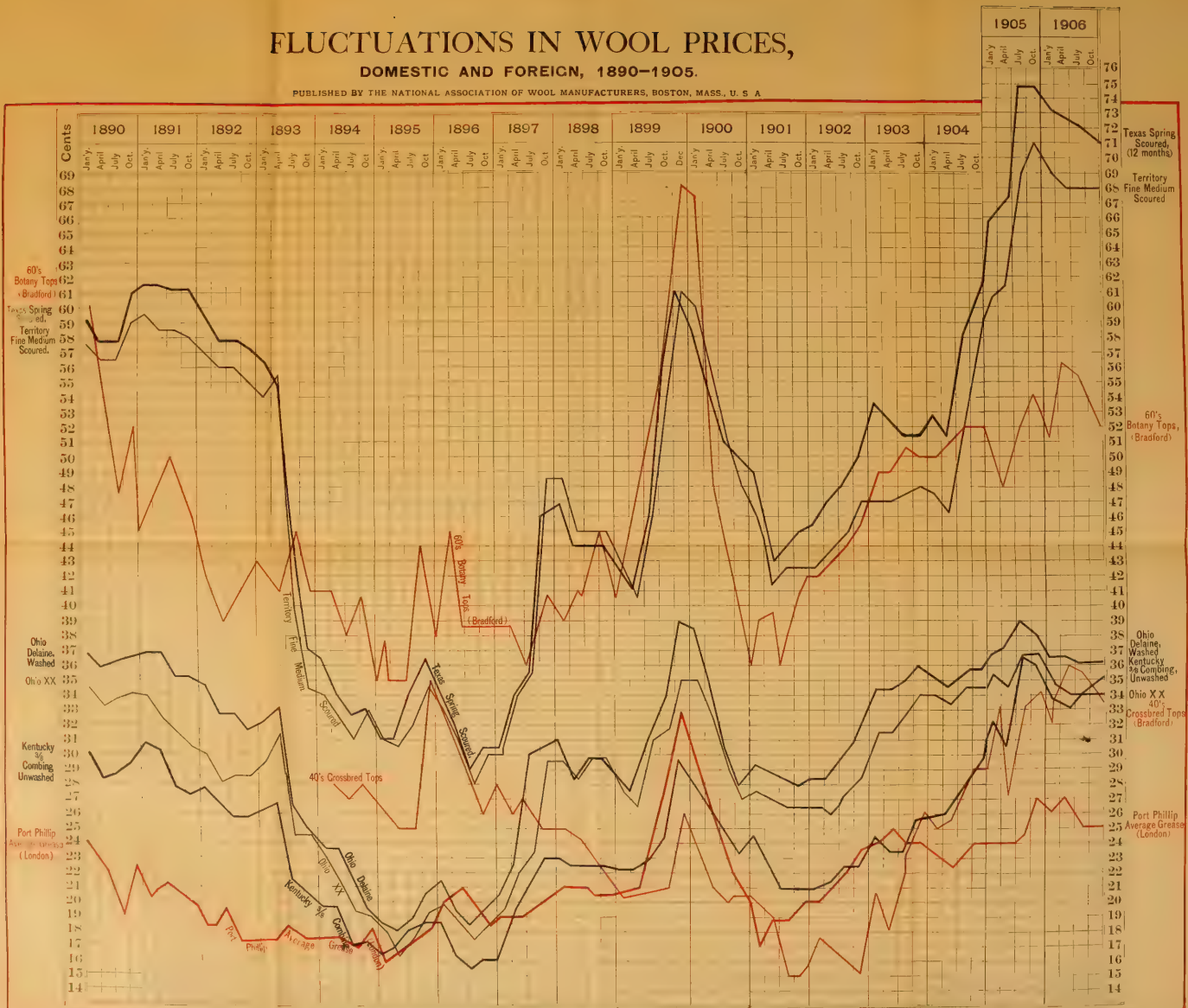
In contrast to last year there was a recession in prices all along the line in 1906, the largest decrease being  $3\frac{3}{4}$  cents in Texas spring scoured. Ohio XX, territory fine medium and Kentucky three-eighths showed losses of from two to three cents a pound. In crossbred tops there was some fluctuation, the price dropping from 34 cents in October, 1905, to 32 cents in January, 1906, advancing to 36 cents in April, since which time the tendency has been downward until the price is now 33 cents. The general course of 60's Botany was about the same as that of crossbreds, a decline from 54 cents to 52 cents being registered during the year under review. These changes and the course of the market are graphically indicated by our chart of fluctuations in wool prices, facing this page, in which Ohio XX and Port Phillip average grease represent Boston and London prices for practically similar grades of wool.

#### BOSTON RECEIPTS AND SHIPMENTS OF WOOL.

Table XII. shows the annual receipts of domestic and foreign wool in Boston by months for the years 1900 to 1906, inclusive, and Table XIII. shows the shipments in pounds from Boston, by months, over the several railroads and by sea for the year. Only the direction and amounts of the shipments can be determined by this table; both are misleading to a certain extent in that they contain shipments of wool from Boston to be scoured, some of which is re-shipped to Boston and again sent away, thus causing duplication in the tables.

# FLUCTUATIONS IN WOOL PRICES, DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN, 1890-1905.

PUBLISHED BY THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF WOOL MANUFACTURERS, BOSTON, MASS., U. S. A.



London price of Port Phillip wool, Helmuth Schwartz & Co. Boston prices of American wools.  
Bradford prices Merino and Crossbred Tops, Yorkshire Observer.



The receipts of domestic wool in Boston up to November 1 were 535,055 bales as compared with 523,956 one year ago. The foreign imports for ten months were 180,207 bales in 1906 and 273,573 bales in 1905. The shipments from Boston for the ten months of the current year were 190,016,900 as compared with 202,259,154 pounds for the corresponding period last year.

TABLE XI. — COMPARATIVE PRICE OF DOMESTIC WOOL IN BOSTON, OCTOBER, 1890-1906.

	1890	1891	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906
<b>OHIO, PENNSYLVANIA, AND WEST VIRGINIA.</b>																	
<i>(Washed.)</i>																	
XX and above . . .	33½	31	28½	24	19	19	19	29½	29½	31½	28½	26½	28½	34	35	36½	34
Medium . . . . .	37	35	32	25	20½	22	19½	30½	30	34½	28½	26	29	32	36	41½	40
Fine Delaine . . . .	36	34	30	25	21	20½	19½	20½	29½	34½	28½	28	31½	36	36	37½	36
<i>(Unwashed.)</i>																	
Fine . . . . .	22½	20	18½	15	14	13½	13½	21	19½	22½	18½	19½	21½	23½	24	27	26
Medium . . . . .	29	27	25	21	18	18½	15½	23	22½	25	23½	20	23	25	30	34½	33
Fine Delaine . . . .	25	23	21½	17	15	15	14	21	21½	24½	21½	21	24	26	27	30	28
<b>MICHIGAN, WISCONSIN, NEW YORK, ETC.</b>																	
<i>(Washed.)</i>																	
Fine . . . . .	30	27	24	23	17	16½	15½	24	22½	25½	22½	20½	24	27½	27½	31*	30*
Medium . . . . .	36	34	31	24	21	21	18½	29	27½	32	27½	24½	27	31	33	40	39
Fine Delaine . . . .	34	32½	28	23	19	18½	18½	27	27½	31½	25½	24½	29	34	34	36	34
<i>(Unwashed.)</i>																	
Fine . . . . .	21	19	17	13½	12½	11½	11½	18½	17½	20	16½	17	19	21½	22	25	24
Medium . . . . .	27	25½	24	18	17½	18	15	22	22	22½	22½	19½	21½	24	29	33	32
Fine Delaine . . . .	24	24	20	16	15	14	13	19½	19½	22½	18½	19	22	23½	25	28	26
<b>KENTUCKY AND INDIANA.</b>																	
<i>(Unwashed.)</i>																	
Medium . . . . .	28	27	25	18½	16½	18½	16	23	22½	22½	24½	21	22½	24½	30	35	33
<b>MISSOURI, IOWA, AND ILLINOIS.</b>																	
<i>(Unwashed.)</i>																	
Medium . . . . .	26	25	24	18	17	17½	15	22	21½	22	22½	19½	21½	23½	29	34	32
<b>TEXAS.</b>																	
<i>(Scoured Basis.)</i>																	
Spring, fine, 12 months	60	58	55	35	33	32	31	46	44	49	50	44	52½	52½	62	75	70
Fall, fine . . . . .	57½	55	50	30	30	28	27	43	41½	44	41	37	45	42½	52	62	58
<b>CALIFORNIA.</b>																	
<i>(Scoured Basis.)</i>																	
Spring, Northern, free, 12 months . .	60	58	55	35	35	33½	31	46	44	49	49	45½	50	52	62	74	70
Fall, free . . . . .	55	53	50	30	29	28	27	42½	41	44	41	38½	43	42½	53	62	60
<b>TERRITORY WOOL, INCLUDING MONTANA, WYOMING, UTAH, IDAHO, OREGON, ETC.</b>																	
<i>(Scoured Basis.)</i>																	
Staple fine . . . . .	62½	60	55	37	35	34	33	50	47½	55	51	46	55	55	65	76	71
“ medium . . . . .	57½	55	50	35	33	32	30	48	45	50	48	44	50	51	60	70	66
Clothing, fine . . . .	57	55	50	35	34	32	31	48	45	50	48	43	48	50	60	72	68
“ medium . . . . .	53	50	48	32	31	30	27½	45	44	48	47½	40	45	46	55	68	63

\* Nominal.



TABLE XII. — RECEIPTS OF WOOL IN BOSTON IN BALES, 1900-1906.  
(*Boston Chamber of Commerce, Daniel D. Morss, Secretary.*)

	1900.		1901.		1902.		1903.		1904.		1905.		1906.	
	Domestic.	Foreign.	Domestic.	Foreign.	Domestic.	Foreign.	Domestic.	Foreign.	Domestic.	Foreign.	Domestic.	Foreign.	Domestic.	Foreign.
January ....	29,029	10,465	23,529	5,669	52,668	7,204	39,500	7,558	44,952	11,038	24,258	40,380	32,869	14,584
February ....	22,954	14,337	22,139	6,517	43,724	10,263	34,133	23,540	35,576	17,089	12,748	39,613	22,641	33,263
March .....	21,566	22,084	39,085	21,618	43,050	23,104	31,038	25,660	38,741	18,535	22,617	33,857	29,760	31,352
April .....	13,973	32,453	37,869	10,353	38,165	31,165	32,047	22,707	33,114	33,990	25,572	30,896	27,536	33,424
May .....	22,010	15,927	56,863	26,828	59,881	15,478	32,062	21,085	48,311	18,527	60,208	28,542	16,439	16,439
June .....	39,055	8,322	69,174	7,215	93,828	5,437	83,398	10,388	96,222	26,877	91,091	43,976	64,274	11,250
July .....	61,837	7,891	116,869	9,746	146,729	10,796	128,661	9,875	153,710	14,147	113,777	14,317	113,506	5,113
August .....	69,721	5,450	112,334	13,438	125,921	16,586	111,937	20,394	124,259	27,350	113,901	17,619	113,219	13,842
September ..	35,482	6,707	66,892	5,279	91,063	9,103	56,764	13,150	38,577	15,778	34,166	10,886	60,088	8,086
October .....	26,208	5,206	34,839	8,467	39,839	12,207	46,971	12,713	34,459	20,713	25,638	9,487	35,352	12,854
November ...	14,132	11,473	51,505	9,063	55,727	8,325	33,080	8,970	35,402	22,005	26,060	13,004		
December ...	20,548	5,773	49,099	6,465	47,020	10,712	37,557	13,219	28,650	26,259	30,169	11,217		
Total .....	377,815	145,583	679,207	130,678	805,940	160,390	673,168	189,231	712,453	242,108	580,185	299,794	535,955	180,207
Weight in pounds ..					231,416,156	82,357,996	183,562,150	95,544,448	199,638,757	112,058,782	157,388,763	153,033,538	10 mos.	

TABLE XIII. — SHIPMENTS OF WOOL FROM BOSTON BY MONTHS.  
(*Chamber of Commerce, Daniel D. Morss, Secretary.*)

RAILROADS.	1906.												
	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	Total 10 months since Jan. 1, 1906.
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
Boston & Albany R.R.:													
Boston & Albany	1,562,687	1,102,640	935,905	499,320	628,535	786,735	918,135	2,230,194	2,050,170	1,837,300	1,816,410	2,107,690	13,810,394
Grand Junction	1,520,000	901,960	1,414,500	1,420,000	1,038,000	1,240,550	2,027,260	1,186,320	774,400	1,154,100	513,210	1,392,110	12,160,450
New York, New Haven & Hart- ford R.R.	5,622,470	4,819,220	7,168,891	6,595,653	6,081,961	4,599,730	4,668,830	4,179,090	5,542,670	4,971,008	4,326,060	4,225,690	52,359,583
Boston & Maine R.R.:													
Eastern & West- ern Division.	6,483,170	7,324,874	8,926,535	9,145,260	7,218,930	6,377,950	6,342,290	6,567,010	8,406,730	6,297,576	6,849,660	7,939,350	74,101,291
Southern Divi- sion.	415,415	302,821	482,933	245,330	1,130,298	653,606	978,686	986,710	1,419,620	1,528,850	784,370	1,261,080	9,481,483
Fitchburg Div.,	697,751	804,150	685,850	746,200	745,250	658,510	1,035,875	905,000	610,065	1,192,269	1,103,600	1,443,758	9,127,377
By sea . . . .	2,109,174	1,874,427	1,887,682	1,247,978	2,965,169	2,022,337	2,395,642	2,190,104	1,655,060	1,828,350	952,800	1,831,200	18,976,322
Total . . . . .	18,410,667	17,137,092	21,513,296	19,899,741	19,838,143	16,359,418	18,366,718	18,244,428	20,458,715	18,809,453	16,346,110	20,200,878	190,016,900
Total after Jan- uary 1. . . . .	*220,669,821	*237,806,913	21,513,296	41,413,037	61,251,180	77,590,598	95,937,316	114,201,744	134,660,459	153,469,912	169,816,022	190,016,900	190,016,900
Total after Jan- uary 1, preced- ing year . . . .	232,617,645	258,876,472	19,913,427	40,679,982	62,871,215	84,097,443	103,503,143	122,999,866	136,360,289	157,796,944	182,363,115	*202,250,154	

\* Includes 1,980,922 pounds destroyed by fire at the docks in Charlestown February 21, 1905.

TABLE XIV.—WOOL IMPORTED INTO BOSTON, NEW YORK, AND PHILADELPHIA, FISCAL YEAR, ENDING JUNE 30, 1906, BY COUNTRIES OF PRODUCTION, IMMEDIATE SHIPMENT, AND CLASSES.

COUNTRIES OF PRODUCTION.	Countries of immediate shipment.	CLASSIFICATION.			TOTAL.
		Class 1.	Class 2.	Class 3.	
		Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
Austria-Hungary . . . . .	Austria-Hungary . . . . .	287		999,377	999,664
Belgium . . . . .	Belgium . . . . .	50,969		3,334	54,303
Denmark . . . . .	Denmark . . . . .			695,643	695,628
France . . . . .	England . . . . .	1,235			
	France . . . . .	46,923		908,079	955,007
	France . . . . .	8,723			
Germany . . . . .	Germany . . . . .	56,876		1,007,989	1,140,124
	Netherlands . . . . .		66,531		
Greece . . . . .	Greece . . . . .			4,176	4,176
	Denmark . . . . .			91,104	
Iceland . . . . .	Iceland . . . . .			342,415	676,640
	England . . . . .		37,397	205,724	
Italy . . . . .	France . . . . .			2,951	456,175
	Italy . . . . .	1,747		451,477	
Malta, Gozo, etc. . . . .	France . . . . .			173,083	235,638
	Malta, Gozo, etc. . . . .			62,555	
Netherlands . . . . .	Netherlands . . . . .		93,832	1,626	99,354
	England . . . . .			3,896	
	France . . . . .			69,529	
Portugal . . . . .	Portugal . . . . .			160,686	247,807
	Spain . . . . .			11,590	
	England . . . . .	132		5,900	
Russia on Baltic Sea, . . . . .	Russia on Baltic Sea . . . . .	630		6,967,692	7,070,378
	Russia on Black Sea . . . . .			9,046	
	England . . . . .			92,990	
	France . . . . .			4,181	
Russia on Black Sea, . . . . .	Russia on Baltic Sea . . . . .			119,151	10,574,637
	Russia on Black Sea . . . . .			10,438,975	
	England . . . . .			12,330	
Servia . . . . .	Austria-Hungary . . . . .			168,274	
	Germany . . . . .			35,321	207,672
	England . . . . .			4,077	
Spain . . . . .	France . . . . .	39,951		319,444	
	Spain . . . . .	2,161		937,510	1,504,064
	England . . . . .	2,412		202,586	
Switzerland . . . . .	France . . . . .			238	238
Turkey in Europe . . . . .	France . . . . .			17,281	
	Turkey in Europe . . . . .		93,841	916,881	1,028,005
	Austria-Hungary . . . . .			11,242	
England . . . . .	England . . . . .	462,809	8,698,338	342,671	9,739,758
	Scotland . . . . .		43,736		
	British Australasia . . . . .	180,962			
Scotland . . . . .	England . . . . .		59,205	314,174	11,274,809
	Scotland . . . . .	624	509,958	10,390,848	
Ireland . . . . .	England . . . . .	2,359	367,985	12,668	601,396
	Ireland . . . . .		157,720	60,664	
Nova Scotia, etc. . . . .	Nova Scotia, etc. . . . .	293			293
Quebec, Ontario, etc. . . . .	Quebec, etc. . . . .		63,272	167	63,439
Mexico . . . . .	Mexico . . . . .	1,213		1,925	3,138
British West Indies . . . . .	British West Indies . . . . .			234	234
Dutch West Indies . . . . .	Dutch West Indies . . . . .	353		44,840	45,193
	Belgium . . . . .	2,931,308			
Argentina . . . . .	France . . . . .	24,837			42,167,927
	England . . . . .	3,815,302		67,675	
	Argentina . . . . .	29,582,923		5,747,772	
Brazil . . . . .	Brazil . . . . .	38,533		76,075	114,608
	England . . . . .	8,233			
Chile . . . . .	Chile . . . . .	381,534	89,733	247,012	728,512
Colombia . . . . .	Colombia . . . . .			1,884	1,884
Falkland Islands . . . . .	England . . . . .	70,203			70,203
Peru . . . . .	England . . . . .		23,349		933,589
	Peru . . . . .	23,198	887,042		

TABLE XIV. — *Continued.*

COUNTRIES OF PRODUCTION.	Countries of immediate shipment.	CLASSIFICATION.			TOTAL.
		Class 1.	Class 2.	Class 3.	
		Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.
Uruguay . . . . .	Belgium . . . . .	1,021,262			5,807,190
	France . . . . .	445,367			
	England . . . . .	545,780			
	Uruguay . . . . .	3,790,786		3,995	
Venezuela . . . . .	Venezuela . . . . .			6,569	6,569
Aden . . . . .	Aden . . . . .			4,283	4,283
Chinese Empire . .	Russia on Baltic Sea . . . . .			452,398	30,233,762
	England . . . . .			532,357	
	Chinese Empire . . . . .		855	29,248,152	
British East Indies	England . . . . .		88,736	3,467,139	6,011,319
	British East Indies . . . . .	991		2,454,453	
Dutch East Indies .	France . . . . .			3,232	7,831
	Dutch East Indies . . . . .			4,599	
	Austria-Hungary . . . . .			5,783	
	Denmark . . . . .			1,325	
Russia — Asiatic . .	Russia on Baltic Sea . . . . .			1,033,582	3,535,740
	Russia on Black Sea . . . . .			2,358,236	
	Turkey in Europe . . . . .			57,472	
	England . . . . .			9,228	
	Russia, Asiatic . . . . .			70,114	
	Austria-Hungary . . . . .			124,906	
	Belgium . . . . .			24,725	
	France . . . . .			1,828,709	
	Germany . . . . .			21,376	
	Russia on Black Sea . . . . .			80,741	
Turkey in Asia . .	Turkey in Europe . . . . .		383,029	1,020,259	14,902,868
	England . . . . .		120	349,145	
	Turkey in Asia . . . . .	3,359	62,752	11,063,689	
	Asia, all other . . . . .			59	
Asia, all other . . .	Russia on Black Sea . . . . .			838,788	1,322,136
	England . . . . .			120,466	
	Russia, Asiatic . . . . .			114,053	
	Turkey in Asia . . . . .			112,218	
	Asia, all other . . . . .			136,611	
British Australasia	Belgium . . . . .	210,206			39,548,569
	France . . . . .	16,742			
	Germany . . . . .	30,287			
	Italy . . . . .	649			
	England . . . . .	16,798,467		90,525	
British Africa . . .	British Australasia . . . . .	22,366,888	34,805		545,022
	Germany . . . . .	29,042			
	England . . . . .	450,472	3,591	1,684	
French Africa . . .	British Africa . . . . .	23,510		36,723	12,969
	England . . . . .			638	
	French Africa . . . . .	666		11,665	
Turkey in Africa — Egypt . . . . .	Germany . . . . .			8,113	41,326
	England . . . . .	8,790		23,065	
	Turkey in Africa — Egypt . . . . .			59	
Africa, all other . .	France . . . . .	30,309	1,125		104,677
	England . . . . .	72,762			
	Africa, all other . . . . .	1,488		118	
Total . . . . .		83,584,917	11,766,952	98,488,185	193,840,054
Imported into . . .	(BOSTON . . . . .	64,801,760	8,336,094	22,420,950	95,558,804
	(NEW YORK . . . . .	8,555,810	1,657,970	49,278,261	59,492,041
	(PHILADELPHIA . . . . .	10,227,347	1,772,888	26,788,974	38,789,209



## STATISTICS OF IMPORTS OF WOOL AND WOOLENS.

The Hon. O. P. Austin, chief of the Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Commerce and Labor, has kindly furnished us with numerous tables showing various important facts with respect to imports of wool and wool manufactures for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1906, which appear in Tables XIV. to XVII. appended, and in the table of imports entered for consumption, on page 444.

## PORTS OF IMPORTS.

Tables XV. and XVI. on pages 359 and 360 contain the statistics of the imports of wool into the three principal ports of entry for the fiscal year, the former showing the principal countries of production and the latter, the imports of each class into Boston, New York, and Philadelphia. Boston shows largely decreased imports in all three classes. New York loses slightly in Classes I. and II., but gains in Class III.; and Philadelphia shows a slight gain in Class II. and a considerable reduction in Class III. wools.

TABLE XV. — WOOL IMPORTED INTO BOSTON, NEW YORK, AND PHILADELPHIA.  
BY PORTS AND CLASSES.

GROSS IMPORTS YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.	BOSTON.			NEW YORK.			PHILADELPHIA.			TOTAL.
	Class 1.	Class 2.	Class 3.	Class 1.	Class 2.	Class 3.	Class 1.	Class 2.	Class 3.	
	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Pounds.	
1896.....	78,398,112	9,539,881	30,325,673	28,939,693	543,352	52,764,614	8,301,279	2,070,608	15,055,110	225,938,322
1897.....	137,221,457	23,156,843	33,421,729	48,428,014	2,371,604	62,522,561	9,884,925	1,811,398	13,676,511	332,495,042
1898.....	36,205,712	2,672,113	22,823,137	5,865,916	458,732	50,071,999	2,306,013	17,505	9,661,885	130,083,012
1899.....	8,335,942	1,554,556	12,456,404	2,911,683	155,121	43,251,114	1,517,560	344,368	4,971,888	75,498,636
1900.....	30,192,843	5,343,455	29,333,226	3,561,996	1,275,008	61,922,600	3,281,782	3,266,758	14,486,204	152,663,872
1901.....	22,416,924	3,396,580	19,963,032	5,602,497	210,782	39,112,400	2,072,551	572,304	8,171,451	101,518,521
1902.....	51,479,822	2,820,800	21,778,976	7,368,817	920,301	52,417,988	5,468,922	266,807	19,780,677	162,243,110
1903.....	30,601,779	8,877,714	35,294,573	5,323,738	1,693,694	54,119,001	4,443,990	1,991,395	29,648,574	171,994,458
1904.....	37,821,884	8,980,496	37,984,908	3,070,482	1,389,643	45,582,335	4,509,591	362,262	27,699,439	170,401,040
1905.....	86,741,441	19,018,797	37,070,260	9,908,856	2,908,801	44,082,025	11,146,872	1,569,526	30,346,375	242,792,953
1906.....	64,801,760	8,336,094	22,420,950	8,555,810	1,657,970	49,278,261	10,227,347	1,772,888	26,788,974	193,840,054

TABLE XVI. — WOOL IMPORTED INTO BOSTON, NEW YORK, AND PHILADELPHIA.  
BY PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES OF PRODUCTION.

YEAR ENDING JUNE 30.	Russia.	Turkey.	United Kingdom.	Argentina.	Uruguay.	Chinese Empire.	British E. Indies.	British Australasia.	All other Countries.	Total.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
1896. ....	13,150,509	17,987,753	14,229,088	32,281,341	9,048,350	26,084,232	9,897,531	72,995,090	30,264,448	225,938,322
1897. ....	19,706,449	20,239,717	27,759,419	64,969,556	15,004,257	21,461,478	10,989,980	109,912,851	42,451,335	332,495,042
1898. ....	16,999,224	9,282,762	12,434,332	16,734,279	1,309,974	20,369,294	6,445,063	31,877,252	14,630,832	130,083,012
1899. ....	13,373,350	5,697,377	9,156,624	7,957,657	149,573	14,276,124	6,949,491	7,249,740	10,688,700	75,498,636
1900. ....	18,869,252	9,577,147	20,393,063	20,064,279	1,072,307	30,998,289	9,397,020	23,121,394	19,171,121	152,663,872
1901. ....	13,720,814	8,355,941	16,919,793	14,358,218	783,075	9,181,105	4,146,698	22,570,030	11,482,847	101,518,521
1902. ....	16,322,231	12,215,316	21,737,509	45,287,370	535,634	18,843,396	6,813,401	26,559,531	13,930,722	162,243,110
1903. ....	19,455,392	15,440,933	31,778,842	23,265,309	541,384	26,032,976	11,850,446	25,238,498	18,390,678	171,994,458
1904. ....	23,403,797	17,742,473	26,807,042	28,168,060	112,208	24,912,491	10,088,556	25,792,098	13,374,315	170,401,040
1905. ....	23,790,451	23,454,337	25,213,450	47,695,567	7,740,309	30,023,157	12,202,135	56,212,733	16,460,214	242,792,953
1906. ....	21,180,755	16,032,199	21,615,963	42,167,927	5,807,190	30,233,762	6,011,319	39,548,551	11,242,388	193,840,054

NOTE. — These figures represent about 98.5 per cent of the total quantity of wool imported into all ports of the United States.

TABLE XVII. — IMPORTS OF WOOL MANUFACTURES, 1900-1906.

	1900.		1901.		1902.		1903.		1904.		1905.		1906.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
GROSS IMPORTS YEARS ENDING JUNE 30.														
Carpets (sq. yds.)	905,906	\$2,749,330	858,807	\$2,705,224	999,913	\$3,447,776	1,080,207	\$3,758,516	844,932	\$2,797,308	818,850	\$2,877,993	1,182,005	\$4,643,529
Clothing, etc., except shawls and knit goods	.....	994,244	.....	1,174,836	.....	1,330,219	.....	1,922,494	.....	1,309,995	.....	1,372,145	.....	1,626,279
Cloth, pounds	5,154,474	5,129,831	3,781,207	3,968,216	4,736,999	4,800,838	4,764,223	4,864,999	4,046,099	4,158,597	3,746,607	3,977,659	4,870,818	5,157,420
Dress goods	.....	5,872,085	.....	5,378,396	.....	6,404,617	.....	7,513,725	.....	8,205,855	.....	8,612,663	.....	10,049,686
Knit fabrics	.....	495,961	.....	411,127	.....	571,565	.....	670,774	.....	515,747	.....	224,383	.....	265,133
Shoddy, flecks, etc., pounds	435,854	86,887	581,264	181,631	249,538	63,053	333,088	92,328	218,618	52,697	277,223	86,978	1,171,095	433,863
Shawls	.....	79,935	.....	76,650	.....	49,504	.....	56,872	.....	54,084	.....	65,253	.....	45,544
Yarns, pounds	185,262	129,688	237,092	149,462	402,150	196,486	361,865	195,410	159,739	112,925	183,211	129,736	198,601	156,629
All other	.....	628,590	.....	536,307	.....	520,405	.....	471,503	.....	526,000	.....	547,453	.....	702,609
	.....	16,166,551	.....	14,651,851	.....	17,384,463	.....	19,546,721	.....	17,733,788	.....	17,893,663	.....	23,080,688



## COUNTRIES OF PRODUCTION AND SHIPMENT.

Table XIV., page 356, shows the countries of production and immediate shipment of wools imported into the United States during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1906.

Of the total amount of Class I. wools imported, 83,584,917 pounds compared with 107,797,169 pounds last year, 39,423,239 came from Australasia, a decrease of 16,773,724 pounds; 36,352,480 pounds came from Argentina, a decrease of 4,742,137 pounds, and 5,803,195 pounds came from Uruguay, a decrease of 1,933,119 pounds. Under the decreased purchases abroad last year it is to be observed that the imports from Argentina were better sustained than those from Australasia.

The supplies of Class III. wools were drawn chiefly from the following countries; the two preceding years are given for comparison.

	1906.	1905.	1904.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
Chinese Empire .....	30,232,907	29,998,474	24,912,491
Russia (Europe and Asia)...	21,180,105	23,789,101	23,402,781
United Kingdom.....	11,132,267	8,215,270	19,570,488
Turkey (Europe and Asia) ..	15,447,772	20,259,653	15,766,891
British East Indies .....	5,921,592	12,176,158	9,981,886
Argentina.....	5,815,447	6,238,388	10,049,069
All other .....	8,758,095	10,821,616	10,583,076
	98,488,185	111,498,660	114,266,682

The influence of high prices is shown by the marked decrease in these imports since 1904. For the decrease since last year the imports from Turkey and the British East Indies are chiefly responsible, those from Russia being well sustained and those from China showing an excess over a year ago.

## GROSS IMPORTS AND IMPORTS ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION.

The figures in the table on page 444, showing the imports of foreign wools and the manufactures of wool entered for consumption during the fiscal year, differ from those in the table of gross imports and must not be confused with them. Only those quan-

tities which go into consumption are included in the former, while in the table of gross imports, all imports, those entered in bond as well as those withdrawn for consumption upon importation, are embraced. These are given in Tables XIV., XV., XVI., and XVII.

The table of imports for consumption shows an increase of 8,207,527 pounds of wool as compared with 1905, the total being 219,495,009 pounds. The increase of Class I. wools is 16,719,394 pounds, the total of 93,488,590 pounds being the largest for many years. In Classes II. and III. there were decreases of 5,535,254 and 2,976,611 pounds, respectively.

The imports of all waste products, including noils and wastes produced in the many processes of manufacture, mungo, flocks, shoddy, and rags, amounted to 1,086,926 pounds, an increase of 816,792 pounds as compared with 1905, and with a foreign value of \$394,278. The average value per pound was 36.3 cents and the duty was 49.38 per cent.

The total imports of wool manufactures (foreign value) show an increase of \$4,332,550, the total being \$22,353,591. Cloths show an increase of \$1,013,833, dress goods, \$1,186,293, and clothing, \$215,952.

Table XVII., page 361, which gives the gross imports of wool manufactures, shows a total foreign value of \$20,080,683, an increase over 1905 of \$5,187,020, and \$5,863,021 in excess of the average value of the imports of the preceding six years. Of this increase, carpets, cloths, and dress goods furnish \$4,382,911, carpets, chiefly Oriental rugs, showing the greatest increase, followed closely by dress goods. Since 1900 the importations of the latter have grown in value from \$5,872,085 to \$10,049,686, in 1906, an increase of \$4,177,601. The total for 1906 is the largest since the passage of the Dingley law.

TABLE XVIII. — NUMBER OF SHEEP, IN PRINCIPAL AND OTHER COUNTRIES, ACCORDING TO LATEST OFFICIAL DATA AND ESTIMATES.

*Year Book of the U.S. Department of Agriculture for 1905.*

Country.	Year.	Sheep.	Country.	Year.	Sheep
Total United States (including Hawaii and Philippine Islands).....		51,001,809	Iceland.....	1903	486,347
United States:			Italy.....	1890	6,900,000
Continental —			Luxemburg.....	1900	19,689
On farms.....	1906	50,631,619	Malta.....	1905	18,529
Not on farms...	1900	231,301	Montenegro.....		400,000
Porto Rico.....	1899	6,363	Netherlands.....	1904	606,785
			Norway.....	1900	998,819
Total United States (in North America).....		50,869,283	Portugal.....		3,064,100
Canada:			Roumania.....	1900	5,655,444
Ontario.....	1905	1,324,153	Russia, European:		
Manitoba.....	1905	18,508	Russia proper.....	1904	49,192,800
Other.....	1901	1,435,319	Poland.....	1904	2,835,000
			Northern Caucasus..	1905	17,638,001
Total Canada.....		2,777,980	Total Russia (European)	1905	59,665,801
Central America:			Servia.....	1900	3,061,759
Costa Rica.....	1905	52	Spain.....	1905	13,025,512
Guatemala.....	1898	77,593	Sweden.....	1904	1,105,903
Honduras.....	1904	11,806	Switzerland.....	1901	219,438
Mexico.....	1902	3,424,430	Turkey and Crete.....		10,000,000
Newfoundland.....	1901	78,052	United Kingdom:		
West Indies: British —			Great Britain.....	1905	25,257,196
Dominica.....	1899	1,088	Ireland.....	1905	3,749,313
Grenada.....	1901	1,975	Isle of Man and Channel Islands.....	1905	70,229
Jamaica.....	1904	20,136	Total United Kingdom.	1905	29,076,738
Turks and Caicos Islands.....	1904	125	Total Europe.....		187,693,892
Virgin Islands...	1904	300	British India.....	1904	221,577,896
Cuba.....	1899	9,982	Ceylon.....	1904	91,767
Dutch.....	1903	28,117	Cyprus.....	1905	235,840
Guadeloupe.....	1906	11,731	Hongkong.....	1904	6
Total North America...		57,312,650	Japanese Empire..	1905	2,769
Argentina.....	1895	74,379,562	Philippine Islands.....	1903	30,423
British Guiana.....	1904	14,600	Russia, Asiatic:		
Chile.....	1902	1,009,159	Transcaucasia.....	1902	6,302,258
Columbia.....		746,000	Four provinces of Central Asia.....	1903	9,113,000
Dutch Guiana.....	1903	111	Four provinces of Siberia.....	1903	3,773,000
Falkland Islands.....	1904	702,444	Other.....	1903	5,443,000
Paraguay.....	1900	214,058	Total Russia (Asiatic).		24,631,258
Uruguay.....	1900	18,608,717	Straits Settlements.....	1904	43,920
Venezuela.....	1899	176,668	Turkey, Asiatic.....		45,000,000
Total South America...		95,851,319	Total Asia.....		91,613,884
Austria-Hungary:			Algeria.....	1904	8,611,747
Austria.....	1900	2,621,026	Basutoland.....	1904	2,794
Hungary.....	1895	8,122,682	British Central Africa...	1904	3,696
Bosnia-Herzegovina..	1895	3,230,720	Cape of Good Hope....	1904	11,818,829
Total Austria-Hungary,		13,974,428	German East Africa... ..	1905	1,560,000
Belgium.....	1905	235,722	German Southwest Africa	1903	186,742
Bulgaria.....	1901	7,015,385	Iagos.....	1902	1,610
Denmark.....	1903	876,830	Madagascar.....	1906	333,454
Faroe Islands.....	1903	91,034			
Finland.....	1903	919,333			
France.....	1905	17,800,965			
Germany.....	1904	7,907,173			
Greece.....	1902	4,568,158			

TABLE XVIII. — *Continued.*

Country.	Year.	Sheep.	Country.	Year.	Sheep.
Mauritius .....	1904	756	Western Australia...	1904	2,853,424
Mayotte .....	1906	124	Tasmania .....	1905	1,556,460
Natal .....	1904	726,752			
Orange River Colony.....	1904	3,145,685	Total Commonwealth ..		65,822,918
Reunion .....	1906	4,583			
St. Helena .....	1901	2,094	New Zealand .....	1904	18,280,806
Seychelles .....	1904	200			
Transvaal.....	1903	200,000	Total Australasia .....		84,103,724
Tunis.....	1904	1,094,761			
Total Africa.....		27,693,836	Fiji .....	1904	1,204
			Hawaii.....	1900	102,098
Australasia:			New Caledonia .....	1906	9,442
New South Wales....	1904	34,526,894	Total Oceania.....		84,216,468
Victoria .....	1904	10,167,641			
Queensland .....	1904	10,843,470	Total .....		544,382,049
South Australia.....	1905	5,874,979			

<sup>1</sup> Including goats.

<sup>2</sup> Of which 252,763 in Alwar include goats.

<sup>3</sup> Exclusive of animals less than 1 year old.

<sup>4</sup> Exclusive of the Windhuk district, in which the sheep and goats were estimated at 2,630.

The foregoing table shows the estimated flocks of the principal wool-producing countries of the world. Some of the figures are ten years old, but if they all correspond as closely with present numbers as do those for Argentina, they will be accepted as very near to accuracy. The difference between the figures given for the United States and those of our estimate is due largely to the different dates taken, and the fact that ours include only sheep suitable for shearing.

*John Bruce McPherson.*  
Secretary.

NOVEMBER 15, 1906.



## THE TARIFF REVISIONIST: AN EXAMPLE OF THE NATURE OF HIS DEMAND.

HISTORY repeats itself. As in 1871 and in 1890, there is to-day a group of men in this Commonwealth who sound a note of discontent and clamor loudly for immediate tariff revision. The most persistent members of this group, the boot and shoe manufacturers, we may study as examples. They insist on the removal of the 15 per cent duty on hides imposed by the act of 1897, and they have joined in a petition to the Congress of the United States for a reduction or abolition of that duty among others. The petition is based upon the allegation that the manufacturing interests of the Commonwealth are not prospering, that they can only be restored to a condition of prosperity by abandoning the present broad scope of the protective policy, and by granting free raw materials to certain manufacturers.

At the outset the allegation in the petition that the industries of the Commonwealth are not prosperous may be denied. The industries of Massachusetts are in a far more prosperous condition now than they have ever been. The census statistics of ten leading industries in the Commonwealth can only be interpreted as showing a marked advance in our industrial progress since 1900. (See table, page 367.)

It is without any spirit of envy or malice that these statements are made with reference to the claims of the boot and shoe manufacturers. I wish success for the boot and shoe industry, as for all Massachusetts industries. I am in hearty sympathy with any legislation that will promote the prosperity of Massachusetts or of any industry in Massachusetts, for I believe that the true prosperity of any one industry adds ultimately to the prosperity of other industries and to the general welfare.<sup>1</sup> I am opposed, however, and shall always be opposed, to any legislation which will favor Massachusetts

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<sup>1</sup> Industrial Interdependence, by William Whitman, Boston, 1906. An Address.

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES. — MASSACHUSETTS.  
(Preliminary statement, U.S. Census, 1905.)

*Comparative Summary of Ten Principal Industries : 1905 and 1900.*

INDUSTRY.	Year.	Number of Establishments.	Capital.	Salaried Officials, Clerks, etc.		Wage-earners.		Miscellaneous Expenses.	Cost of Materials Used.	Value of Products, including Custom Work and Repairing.
				Number.	Salaries.	Average Number.	Wages.			
Boots and shoes . . . . .	{ 1905 . . . . . } { 1900 . . . . . }	502 640	\$49,529,728 37,577,630	3,400 2,546	\$3,245,039 2,487,013	62,633 58,645	\$33,160,667 27,745,820	\$8,340,835 4,826,896	\$88,493,009 75,751,964	\$144,291,426 117,115,243
Boots and shoes, rubber . . . . .	{ 1905 . . . . . } { 1900 . . . . . }	7 6	14,844,588 13,157,321	295 153	287,002 220,321	7,674 5,250	3,754,001 2,456,305	1,387,049 1,081,132	13,178,270 8,837,688	39,034,549 16,490,015
Cotton goods . . . . .	{ 1905 . . . . . } { 1900 . . . . . }	142 163	173,660,030 155,761,193	1,504 1,080	2,658,658 2,013,902	88,033 92,085	32,352,325 32,327,443	9,276,447 7,243,357	79,767,088 54,068,038	129,171,449 110,478,327
Foundry and machine shop products . . . . .	{ 1905 . . . . . } { 1900 . . . . . }	693 823	72,622,672 61,022,495	2,632 2,093	3,646,359 2,785,384	32,972 32,104	19,271,924 17,772,854	5,701,887 3,614,107	22,261,429 21,201,706	59,508,793 55,894,278
Leather, tanned, curried, and finished . . . . .	{ 1905 . . . . . } { 1900 . . . . . }	132 119	27,970,206 15,317,940	526 355	686,354 405,648	9,074 7,010	4,566,327 3,379,698	1,942,733 662,563	23,040,897 19,793,757	33,352,999 26,067,714
Paper and wood pulp . . . . .	{ 1905 . . . . . } { 1900 . . . . . }	87 93	41,073,769 29,632,922	627 510	1,184,610 861,162	11,706 9,061	5,687,862 3,838,400	2,960,680 1,683,505	17,946,726 11,918,802	32,012,247 22,141,461
Printing and publishing . . . . .	{ 1905 . . . . . } { 1900 . . . . . }	1,021 990	24,310,085 19,620,791	4,437 3,195	4,630,226 2,907,360	11,548 11,019	7,347,903 6,761,974	7,613,339 5,618,379	8,863,450 6,914,994	33,900,748 29,372,314
Slaughtering and meat packing, wholesale . . . . .	{ 1905 . . . . . } { 1900 . . . . . }	42 22	12,755,034 11,314,075	403 220	392,354 250,296	2,871 2,748	1,501,085 1,318,077	830,691 591,102	33,242,733 23,040,969	37,098,502 31,633,483
Woolen goods . . . . .	{ 1905 . . . . . } { 1900 . . . . . }	131 131	42,537,589 33,106,903	585 438	932,049 729,724	21,969 17,717	9,494,489 6,823,051	2,249,956 1,746,199	27,048,506 18,273,424	44,653,940 30,888,104
Worsted goods . . . . .	{ 1905 . . . . . } { 1900 . . . . . }	49 45	59,563,759 45,790,200	451 303	767,016 736,250	21,182 18,867	8,298,364 7,055,585	1,626,340 1,081,861	33,753,591 25,315,707	51,973,944 40,557,363

at the expense of the country at large, or will favor any one industry in Massachusetts, or elsewhere, to the detriment of other kindred industries.

The 15 per cent duty on hides should not be removed, because its removal is sought on erroneous grounds and for selfish reasons. Its removal will be of no real advantage to the boot and shoe manufacturer, and will prove inimical to our other industries and to the true interests of Massachusetts. My feeling may be expressed in the words of a gentleman from the West, whose point of view I can readily appreciate.

In his speech before the United States Senate on June 27, 1906, Senator Francis E. Warren, of Wyoming, said :

We do not envy Massachusetts her great prosperity. We all rejoice in it, but we do not propose to have her gain still greater prosperity at the expense of our western customers.

There is a warning note in such a speech by a western man. The present agitation is dangerous. An effort to relegate to the free list the products of the farms and ranches of the middle and far West will tend to alienate sections which have stood steadfastly for our present system. If such effort succeeds in spite of the opposition of the West, which is increasing rapidly in political power, retaliation will supplant coöperation, and when the next tariff law is to be framed the manifold interests of Massachusetts and New England may be less favorably treated than under the present act. This is my personal opinion, but it is shared also by members of the House of Representatives, past and present, who know the temper of that body.

The Mayor of Boston, though not a protectionist, recognizes the difficulty, if not the inconsistency, of the position taken by those participating in this agitation. In a recent speech to the New England Shoe & Leather Association, he acknowledged that "the men from the South and the West laugh when we appeal now for free hides, free coal, free lumber, and free wool, and say that Massachusetts has too long been feeding at the treasury, and that it is now time that their sections get a chance. There is no question about

this belief and we must not only combat this opinion, but we must inform these men of the true state of affairs."

This is significant from an ex-Congressman, who is in hearty sympathy with the demands of the boot and shoe manufacturers. The members of Congress from the middle and far West, the sections of the country which will be affected by the changes urged, are at present strongly opposed to the extension of the free list to cover the productions of their States. Is it wise, therefore, to arouse their opposition?

The danger attending the agitation for immediate tariff revision may be as serious to the shoe manufacture as to other manufactures. The shoe manufacturer should realize how dependent he is upon the cattle industry of the United States. According to ex-Governor Douglas, that industry supplies three-fourths of our entire consumption of hides, and it probably supplies a much larger proportion. It is safe to assert that without the great production of cattle hides in the United States, our extensive shoe manufacture of to-day could not be carried on. There is no other part of the world from which a materially increased quantity of hides could be obtained. To-day the world's total production is consumed.

Should the tariff be revised, it is not at all improbable that the demand for free hides may so antagonize the farming interests as to lead to the imposition of a duty upon a vast number of hides and skins which are now free. It may lead to the imposition of a duty upon calf skins. It may lead to the imposition of a duty upon sheep skins. It may lead to the imposition of a duty upon goat skins. It may further lead to the imposition of a duty on all other skins (except furs). This would mean placing on the dutiable list hides and skins which are now free of duty to the large amount of \$49,782,128.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup>United States imports of animal skins entered for consumption free of duty, 1905:

	<i>Value.</i>
Calf skins . . . . .	\$9,775,400
Sheep skins . . . . .	8,984,477
Goat skins . . . . .	26,943,693
All other skins (except furs) . . . . .	4,078,558
Total . . . . .	\$49,782,128

Commerce and Navigation Reports of the United States, 1905, p. 958.



There is substantial ground for the belief that the law of 1897 was intended to assess the same duty on calf skins as upon hides. Prior to that time, hides and calf skins had no separate classification. Soon after the passage of the law, July 31, 1897, the United States Collectors of Customs were instructed by the Treasury Department to assess a duty on calf skins at 15 per cent, and for a short time this duty was assessed. An appeal from the decision of the Collector of Customs at New York was taken, and the Board of General Appraisers sustained the appeal by deciding that calf skins were not dutiable under the law. The Treasury Department did not appeal from this decision. If it was the original intent to have the law apply to calf skins, and that intent has been frustrated by legal or commercial technicalities, it would be natural, if the case is again opened before Congress, for those interests which procured the passage of the law to have it so amended as to carry out what was originally intended.

The shoe manufacturer, through revision, is seeking lower duties on the articles in which he is especially interested. He should beware lest he antagonize those who furnish his raw material and he receive more revision than he asks for.

New England has grown great industrially under the present laws, and a departure from the principles embodied in those laws should be most carefully considered, the reasons for any change most carefully weighed, and the consequences dwelt upon. It must be obvious that the change proposed could not, at this time, be consistently granted to one industry and denied to others equally entitled to consideration. The reasons for it should be most convincing before the people commit themselves to a line of action which endangers the interests of industries whose representatives are not supporting or encouraging this agitation.

#### PROVISIONS GOVERNING THE IMPORTATION OF HIDES.

The act of Congress of June 6, 1872, exempted from duty after August 1, 1872, "hides, raw or uncured, whether dry, salted, or pickled, and skins except sheep skins with the wool on."

Comparatively slight changes in phraseology were made by the acts of March 3, 1883, October 1, 1890, and August 27, 1894, respecting these articles. The only change affecting their free importation was a provision in the act of 1890 authorizing the President to impose a duty of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  cents per pound on imports from countries that imposed discriminating duties on certain American products. The effect of this provision was too slight to require consideration. From 1872 to 1897 imported hides and skins were admitted free of duty. In 1897 the following duty was imposed :

Hides of cattle, raw or uncured, whether dry, salted, or pickled, 15 per cent ad valorem ; provided, that upon all leather exported, made from imported hides, there shall be allowed a drawback equal to the amount of duty paid on such hides, to be paid under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe.

LESS THAN ONE-FOURTH OF IMPORTED HIDES AND SKINS  
IN FACT DUTIABLE.

The principal material in the manufacture of boots and shoes is leather, and yet, in fact, an insignificant portion of the hides and skins used in making this leather is dutiable. The act imposes a duty on "hides of cattle" and exempts all other hides and all skins with the exception of furs. Furthermore, in the construction of the act the United States Board of General Appraisers has gone so far as to hold that the phrase "hides of cattle" does not embrace calf skins, although the framers of the act are said to have intended to include calf skins. Also, by the rules and practice of the customs officials, all wet salted skins under 25 pounds, dry salted hides under 15 pounds, and arsenic cured hides under 12 pounds, are classified as calf skins.

What is the result? Only cattle hides are dutiable according to the letter of the law, and only a portion of those cattle hides is dutiable according to the construction of the law. In 1904 only 20 per cent of all imported hides and skins paid a duty, and the remaining 80 per cent were free. In 1905 only 23 per cent paid a duty, and the

remaining 77 per cent were free.<sup>3</sup> The result is that less than one-fourth of all imported hides and skins (other than furs) is in fact dutiable.

Furthermore, much of the duty paid on imported hides was returned by way of drawback, when those hides were subsequently exported in the form of leather.<sup>3</sup>

These facts are pointed out, because many are under the impression that all hides and skins (other than furs) entering into the manufacture of leather and boots and shoes are dutiable. It is not generally realized that more than 75 per cent of such hides and skins are free and have been so since 1873.

#### WHY THE DUTY WAS IMPOSED.

It is usually asserted that the duty was imposed in obedience to a demand from the beef trust. To understand the error of this assertion, we have merely to recall the conditions that existed in 1897, when the act was framed, and in 1890 the date of its predecessor act.

In 1890 the farming interests of the country were in a state of deep depression. The gloom surrounding the agriculturalists of the land had resulted in a spirit of discontent, manifesting itself in a populist movement, which spread throughout the West. To give them some measure of relief a complete list of agricultural products was, in 1890, for the first time in the history of American tariffs, put on the protective schedules. The bill was framed by men whose chief motive was to meet the demands for relief, which overwhelmed them from agricultural communities.

Similar conditions existed seven years later, when the Dingley bill was under consideration. The whole country had passed through a period of business depression, the

<sup>3</sup> United States Imports. Compiled from Commerce and Navigation Reports of the United States, 1905.

	1904.	1905.
Hides and skins (other than furs) free of duty * . . .	\$41,028,559.19	\$49,789,071.54
Hides and skins (other than furs) dutiable only . . .	10,815,205.75	14,578,019.30
Total . . . . .	\$51,843,764.94	\$64,367,090.84
Amount of duty paid . . . . .	\$1,621,827.28	\$2,185,381.53
Amount of drawback on dutiable hides reexported . . .	631,443.91	565,514.99
Actual net revenue to United States Government. . . .	\$990,383.37	\$1,619,866.54

\* Includes a small quantity of fish skins.

severity and length of which were unusual in our experience. The agricultural classes suffered equally with the manufacturers. In this instance, also, the men who championed the cause of the agricultural classes were in a position to control legislation. The imposition of the duty on hides was not at the instance of the packer interests, but of the agriculturalists, who for years had been supporting the protective cause.

Between 1889 and 1897 six western States, with twelve votes in the Senate, had been added to the Union, and the political power of the West had thus been greatly strengthened, so greatly strengthened that it is doubtful, in my opinion, if the Dingley act could have been passed without their support, or if measures threatening loss to western interests can ever again be enacted into law in the face of their united opposition. It is a condition which confronts the manufacturer of the East, and he must apparently take one of two courses which appear to be open to him: either to make some concessions and recognize the claims of the agriculturalist in the hope of securing stability and accord, or fight for what is not absolutely essential to business success, and experience opposition, discord, and unstable conditions.

The boot and shoe manufacturers want a change. We have taken them as our examples. To discover the effect of the duty on their industry, let us investigate how far it has diminished the importation and exportation of hides. Let us estimate the amount of the duty on hides and the portion of the duty that is refunded to the American tanner by way of drawback. Let us discover how much the duty increases the cost of making boots and shoes, and consider the arguments in favor of the repeal of the duty.

#### THE DUTY HAS NOT HINDERED IMPORTATION OF HIDES.

Prior to 1873 there was a duty on hides. In 1873 that duty was removed, and yet from 1874 to 1876 the value of the imports of hides entered for consumption decreased from \$13,524,733 to \$10,242,874.

In 1882 the imports were valued at \$23,026,402. Then began a decline until in 1894 the imports were only \$7,665,—



792 in value, less than one-half that of twenty years earlier. This enormous decline in importations took place under the law admitting hides free of duty. It is strange that such should be the case if the duty injures our import business as alleged. But let us consider the more recent periods.

The imports of hides (*now dutiable*) for the five years, 1893 to 1897 inclusive, were valued at \$70,392,256, while those for the five-year period, 1899 to 1903 inclusive, were valued at \$79,853,805, or \$9,461,549 more than in the earlier period when hides were free. It is interesting to note that during the past fiscal year our imports have increased about 46 per cent in value and 38 per cent in quantity over those of the previous year. These facts demonstrate that the duty has not caused diminished importation or rendered it more difficult to get supplies for the home industry.

#### EXPORT OF SOLE LEATHER UNABATED.

Nor has the duty prevented the export of sole leather and other leather by the tanners of the United States.<sup>4</sup> An examination of the exports of sole leather for a dozen years or more discloses the fact that they have been practically the same since 1897 as before.<sup>5</sup> This country exported in the

<sup>4</sup> Exports of sole leather and other kinds of leather from principal countries, during the calendar year 1905:

	<i>Sole Leather.</i>	<i>Other Leather.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
United States . . . . .	\$8,689,190	\$19,667,702	\$28,356,892
United Kingdom . . . . .	<i>a</i>	10,282,053 <i>b</i>	10,282,053
Germany . . . . .	2,603,244	26,906,138	29,509,382
France . . . . .	<i>a</i>	23,321,348 <i>c</i>	23,321,348
Spain . . . . .	222,262	1,311,566 <i>d</i>	1,533,828
Italy . . . . .	334,554	969,343	1,303,897
Belgium . . . . .	<i>a</i>	4,216,700 <i>c</i>	4,216,700
Austria-Hungary . . . . .	549,493	2,183,543	2,733,036

*a* Not specified.

*b* Leather, tanned, tawed or dressed.

*c* Including sole leather.

*d* Including sheep, morocco, etc.

<sup>5</sup> Exports of Sole Leather. Compiled from Commerce and Navigation Reports of the United States.

<i>Fiscal Years.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
1893 . . . . .	33,570,037	\$5,192,063
1894 . . . . .	42,477,497	6,481,257
1895 . . . . .	45,364,349	6,919,372
1896 . . . . .	41,818,503	7,474,021
1897 . . . . .	38,384,314	6,510,404
1898 . . . . .	37,813,019	6,644,553
1899 . . . . .	37,120,912	6,280,904
1900 . . . . .	34,060,296	6,443,303
1901 . . . . .	35,180,266	6,577,732
1902 . . . . .	36,428,437	6,569,857
1903 . . . . .	37,454,284	6,920,467
1904 . . . . .	36,830,717	6,978,497
1905 . . . . .	44,107,054	9,444,873

calendar year, 1905, more sole leather than all the other leather-producing countries of the world.<sup>4</sup> Germany, Spain, Italy, and Austria-Hungary, combined, exported in the calendar year, 1905, sole leather to the value of but \$3,709,553, while the value of the same exports of the United States was \$8,689,190.<sup>4</sup> The exports of sole leather by the United Kingdom, France, and Belgium could not be obtained, but it is safe to assert that the total for this country would exceed that of all other countries combined.

In 1905 the net duty received from hides and skins was \$1,619,866.54. When we consider that the exports of all our leather and manufactures of leather amount to a sum about equal to three times the value of the dutiable hides and skins imported, it is difficult to understand how people can complain that the small amount of duty collected is a real burden.

Our exports of sole leather alone in the year 1904 were 44 per cent in pounds of the hides imported. Had the sole leather that was exported been needed in this country, or could it have been marketed at as high a price in this country as in other countries, such exports would not have been made.

#### THE REASONS URGED FOR THE REPEAL OF THE DUTY.

The chief reasons advanced for a repeal of the duty are that the 15 per cent is a larger duty than that which prevailed prior to 1873; that the beneficiary is not the stock-raiser but the beef trust; that the hide is a by-product and the duty protects nobody; that foreign markets must be found for the surplus products of our factories; and that the drawback helps the foreign shoemaker and hinders the export of American shoes.

The original demand was for free hides only, but it has been broadened so as to include not only free hides, but free leather as well. The argument advanced to support this latter demand is that members of the so-called beef trust who are said to dominate the United States Leather Company

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<sup>4</sup> See table on preceding page.

have become interested in the Central Leather Company, which seeks to control the tanning industry, as the beef trust is alleged to control the output of hides, and that free hides alone are not sufficient to free the shoe manufacturers from the control of the two trusts, the latter being equally menacing to their welfare as the former. If the United States Leather Company and the Central Leather Company control a large and increasing percentage of the leather output of this country, then free hides, as these agitators now confess, would be of no material value to the boot and shoe manufacturers, for the monopoly would still remain in the hands of those alleged to dominate the leather market. If free hides alone would do no particular good, why be so insistent in demanding them? But, grant that the leather duty should also be repealed, could we be sure that a proper and final diagnosis of the trouble has been made, and that within a few years a supplemental and more comprehensive demand would not be formulated and proclaimed to be necessary to save this languishing industry? We may well ask, where will this demand end? What industry will be next attacked and asked to make a sacrifice for the shoe manufacturers of this country?

Let us suppose we had free leather. From what countries could our manufacturers secure a sufficient supply to meet the needs of our people? Are there any other countries in the world whose tanners know the secrets of producing the best sole leather that can do much more than supply their domestic markets? If, under the present conditions, the United States furnishes England's factories with a large portion of the leather they consume, is it likely that the placing of hides and leather on the free list will relieve our shoe manufacturers?

The tariff revisionist holds out the hope of largely increased trade with Canada. It may be that our trade with Canada in hides and skins would increase, but the increase would be slight. As it is, to-day we take nearly all her surplus. In 1904, 85 per cent of her hides and skins came to the United States, and the imports of Canada in hides and skins were

nearly two and one-half times the value of her exports.<sup>6</sup> How would it be possible to increase trade very much under such conditions? Furthermore, what assurance have we that her market is any more free from trust domination than our own; or that the trust would not soon be in control both there and here, even though our markets should be thrown open to foreign hides and leather?

#### BY-PRODUCTS SHOULD NOT BE IGNORED BY THE TARIFF.

It is asserted that hides are a by-product, that not an animal is bred for the hide, and that the farmers and stock-raisers of the country have not been benefited in the least by the duty. The sole beneficiary, in the opinion of those who oppose the tariff on hides, has been the beef trust.

The argument that a by-product should not be considered in the framing of a tariff bill is hardly convincing. It is not infrequently the case in modern industries that the gains from by-products produce the dividends and turn the accounts from loss to profit. In a recent publication this fact is brought out in a striking way concerning the very packing establishments now held up to execration.<sup>7</sup>

Consider also the great benefit reaped by the people of this country each year from a single by-product. The tiny seeds of the cotton plant, grown for cotton, as its name suggests,

<sup>6</sup> Dominion of Canada, 1904:

	<i>Imports.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
Hides and skins raw, whether dry, salted or pickled, and tails undressed,		\$4,775,464
	<i>Exports.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
Hides and skins, other than fur:		
Great Britain . . . . .		\$250,788
Newfoundland . . . . .		2,642
Belgium . . . . .		285
France . . . . .		300
Germany . . . . .		4,067
Holland . . . . .		12,799
United States . . . . .		1,738,767
Total . . . . .		\$2,039,648

<sup>7</sup> "America at Work" — Page 160.

"A curious but striking and apparently paradoxical fact is that the prosperous pork and beef businesses of Chicago do not pay. Take the figures for 1901. The total expenses of the packing houses were £150,244,848, made up of such items as £136,000,000, for materials, £5,000,000 for rent, £18,000,000 for wages and so on, and the actual amount produced by sale of meat was just £124,263,998. Yet in the year there was a profit of £6,767,638. How was the big deficit turned into a big profit and the £32,748,438 made up?

"Simply by the utilization of the by-product. Of £32,000,000, twelve millions were drawn from lard, three millions from oil, nearly seven millions from hides, more than a million from fertilizers and wool, and other millions are contributed by a hundred other products."



yielded in 1905 primary products valued at \$69,406,463. Furthermore, we have authority to the effect that the so-called by-product in this particular instance, namely, "hides of cattle," is worth one-fifth the value of the animal from which it is taken.<sup>8</sup> This comparative valuation of the hide has not been challenged and ought to silence those who contend that the by-product, in this case at least, is so trivial as to be ignored.

#### FARMERS FEEL THEY PROFIT BY THE DUTY.

It is not well to declare that the farmers reap no benefit from this duty; for until that is demonstrated to their satisfaction — something which has not yet been done — it will be impossible to dislodge a conviction which has already become fixed in their minds. The farmers feel that their products are protected by the duty. Until a demonstration is accepted by such constituents, it will be idle to expect their representatives in Congress — and they form a majority of the body — to go contrary to the views of the men to whom they are accountable. As the Hon. Benjamin Butterworth, who for a number of years creditably represented one of the Cincinnati districts in the House of Representatives, has tersely stated: "Congress is a sounding board, a cave of echoes, an assemblage of unpatented graphophones repeating what is talked into them by their constituents." These members of Congress are indeed amenable to public opinion, and that is the very reason we must not expect the representatives of districts, whose interests are supposed to be attacked, to look with favor upon this proposal. With them it is a question upon which their political life depends; and the question of their view apart, they are occupying the position that many of the opponents of the duty would take, were positions reversed.

<sup>8</sup> Speech of Hon. Henry T. Bannon, of Ohio, in the House of Representatives, May 22, 1906:

On September 13, 1905, Swift & Co. made a test of the cost, expense of handling, dressing and selling an average lot of eighteen steers. These animals weighed 23,080 pounds, and cost, at \$3 60 per hundredweight, \$830.88. The hides taken from them weighed 1,288 pounds and were sold for \$172.10. The value of the hides was equal to one-fifth of the cost of the cattle. This is almost invariably the case. The farmer knows that. He knows that the hide is one-fifth of the value of his animal; and if that hide is protected by a duty of 15 per cent he gets the benefit. If that duty is removed, upon him must fall the loss, and there will be no resulting benefit to the retail buyer of shoes, harness, and other leather articles.

## DOES THE TRUST PROFIT BY THE DUTY AS ALLEGED?

The promoters of the agitation adopt a common method of arousing public sentiment. They parade a bugaboo for our edification and denunciation. They have declared that "the beef trust is enriched by the duty on hides to the full extent of the duty," a sum alleged to amount to about \$7,000,000 annually. If this is true and the trust is the octopus controlling the hide output and reaching out to embrace the market of sole leather, it is strange that one of the vice-presidents of the United States Leather Company, a member of the trust, should have announced at a recent gathering of shoe dealers in Boston the willingness of his company to join in a movement for free hides and free leather whenever the shoemakers are willing to advocate free shoes. If the trust reaps the sum attributed to it, then it is incomprehensible that it is willing to surrender that income without return or consideration. This allegation that the trust is the sole beneficiary of the duty apparently has no more foundation in fact than the former declaration that the duty was imposed at the dictation of the beef trust. The representatives of the agriculturalists claim that their constituents absorb most of the benefit of the duty, if not all of it.<sup>9</sup>

## THE MANUFACTURERS' COMPLAINT OF THE DRAWBACK.

It is urged that the position of the American shoemaker is made difficult by the provision in the law for a drawback on exported leather made from imported hides equal to the duties paid on the raw material. The charge is made that United States tanners are willing to share the drawback with their foreign customers and that this enables them to sell to foreign competitors at lower prices than to domestic shoe manufacturers. If this is correct, it can indicate but one of two things: either an over-production of sole leather in this country, so that a certain amount of "dumping" is done, or that prices have not been raised by the full amount of the duty, namely,

<sup>9</sup>Speech of Hon. Henry T. Bannon, of Ohio, in the House of Representatives, May 22, 1906. Speech of Hon. Francis E. Warren, of Wyoming, in the Senate of the United States, June 27, 1906.

15 per cent. When the drawback provision was inserted into the law, it was anticipated that hides would be brought into this country, tanned here, and reexported, and that our tanners and their employees would enjoy the rewards of that labor. It could not have been suspected that advantage to the foreign shoe manufacturer and injury to ours would be the result of a policy which was devised to encourage the leather industry, protect labor, and enlarge our markets. I believe that the purposes of the law have been and are being accomplished. Our large exports of leather clearly indicate this.<sup>10</sup>

#### HAS THE AMERICAN BOOT AND SHOE MANUFACTURER BEEN INJURED?

In the case of the American manufacturer, are any unfavorable results in evidence? Up to the present time what benefit has the foreign manufacturer secured? Even with the alleged lower cost of leather, it does not appear that the foreign manufacturer has been able to sell his boots and shoes in the American market even to a limited extent. The boot and shoe industry is perhaps the only domestic industry of any importance which enjoys freedom from considerable foreign competition. Not only have our manufacturers complete control of the home market, but since 1897 foreign exports of our boots and shoes have increased at a rate unsurpassed in the history of the industry. France, Germany, the United Kingdom, Canada, Mexico, the British West Indies, Cuba, Australasia, and British Africa are our principal customers. Of these, Great Britain, Canada, Mexico, Cuba and Australasia purchased five-sevenths of the total exports of 1904. A case cannot be made out against the duty by any comparison of the exports since its imposition. The duty certainly has not prevented expansion in the export of American shoes, nor a great increase in the value of the product, both in Massa-

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<sup>10</sup> See Footnote (4) *supra*.

chusetts and the country at large.<sup>11</sup> The increase may not have been occasioned by the duty; but whatever the cause, the fact remains that at no time in the history of the industry have the exports, both as to value and pairs exported, been greater than during the life of the Dingley law.

#### MISTAKEN IDEAS AS TO THE BOOT AND SHOE MANUFACTURE.

The shoe manufacture has been so much discussed of late that an idea is prevalent that it is the Commonwealth's most important industry. Emphasis is laid on the value of the finished product and comparisons are sometimes thoughtlessly made with other local industries to the disadvantage of the latter. I have no desire to belittle the importance of the industry or to reflect in the slightest degree on its value to the Commonwealth and its citizens, but absolute fairness compels me to draw attention to certain facts which, though obvious to the investigator, may be easily overlooked by others. The boot and shoe manufacture is one which assembles the finished products of other industries. Its finished product, when put on the market, is ready for wear by the purchaser. It is unlike the textile industries, the materials of which are the products of the farm and field, on which no manufacturing cost has been expended to enhance their value, and the finished products of which are merely the raw materials for the wholesale clothier, merchant tailor, and the dressmaker. The boot and shoe industry begins with a finished product and ends with a finished product, while the textile industries begin with raw materials and end, in a sense, with raw materials.

<sup>11</sup> United States Boot and Shoe Exports. Commerce and Navigation Reports.

	<i>Value.</i>	<i>Average value.</i>
Fiscal year 1896, 1,036,235 prs. . . . .	\$1,436,686	\$1.39 per pr.
" " 1904, 4,642,531 " . . . . .	7,238,940	1.56 " "
This is an increase of 348 per cent in numbers and 410 per cent in value, and of 12 per cent on average value per pair.		
In 1906 there were exported 5,672,249 pairs, valued at \$9,142,748, an average of \$1.61 per pair.		
Value of shoe product in Massachusetts:		
1885 . . . . .		\$114,729,533
1895 . . . . .		122,135,081
1905 . . . . .		144,291,426
In the 10 years from 1885 to 1895 the value increased \$7,405,548, and in the 10 years from 1895 to 1905, 8 years of which the duty was in force, the value increased \$22,156,345.		



A comparison with the cost of materials and value of the wool and cotton industries will illustrate my point.<sup>12</sup>

Boots and shoes are preëminently the product of a factory system and their value is easily obtained, whereas the products of the textile mills, noted in the census as factory product, are the materials used in other branches of manufacture and are reported under different heads. The production of garments is also still largely a household industry which is not noticed. These increased values, added to the output of the textile mills, suggest to what an extent the product of either the wool or cotton industry would overshadow the product of the shoe industry.

There are certain further facts in connection with the boot and shoe industry that should be borne in mind when we hear the lament of its leaders.

#### CAPITAL INVESTED IN BOOT AND SHOE INDUSTRY REMARKABLY PRODUCTIVE.

For a very much smaller investment of capital, by the employment of fewer operatives, and the payment of much less money in wages, it secures an output of relatively greater value.<sup>13</sup> Its capital is nearly three times more productive than that of the wool manufacture and three and a half times more productive than that of the cotton manufacture. It would be hard to find an industry with an output larger for the capital invested.

In the cotton manufacture the annual value of the product

<sup>12</sup> United States Census Reports, 1900.

	<i>Cost of Materials.</i>		<i>Value of Products.</i>	
Shoes . . . . .	{	\$169,604,054	1900	\$261,028,580
		118,785,831	1890	220,649,358
Wool manufacture . . . .		232,230,968	1900	392,473,050*
	{	203,095,575	1890	337,768,524
Cotton " . . . . .		173,441,390	1900	332,806,156†
		154,912,979	1890	267,981,724

\* Includes hosiery and knit goods.

† Exclusive of cotton smallwares.

<sup>13</sup> Average amount of capital required in the boot and shoe industry and the cotton and the woolen manufacture for every \$100 worth of product as shown by the census of 1900.

	<i>Capital.</i>	<i>Product.</i>	<i>Capital for \$100 Product.</i>
Boots and shoes . . . . .	\$101,795,233	\$261,028,580	\$39
Cotton goods . . . . .	467,240,157	339,200,320*	137
Woolens except hosiery and knit goods .	310,179,749	296,990,484	104

\* Includes cotton smallwares.

of cotton cloth is about equal to the value of the mills and machinery. In other words, one million dollars expended in the erection of mills, with suitable machinery for the production of cotton cloth, will produce annually about one million dollars worth of cotton goods. Contrast this with the returns of one of the largest, if not the largest, shoe manufacturing concern in the United States, which is claimed to have an annual product of nine million dollars in value. The real estate of this company, including land and buildings, was valued in 1905 at \$65,746. The valuation of the machinery by the company was \$235,415.45. This company has, therefore, an annual production of boots and shoes valued at about thirty times the book value of its entire plant. The capital invested in this particular instance is certainly productive.

#### QUESTION OF COAL FAR MORE IMPORTANT TO OTHER INDUSTRIES.

Coal is of vastly greater moment to other important industries of New England than to the boot and shoe industry. This can readily be seen by examining the figures in the census for 1900 relating to the cotton and the wool manufacture. It must be remembered also in considering these figures that they do not include those for knit goods, a branch of the industry of considerable consequence.

The power required to move the boot and shoe machinery of Massachusetts, which produces nearly one-half as much as the entire country, was in 1900 only 18,411 horse-power. The power required to move all the boot and shoe machinery of the United States was only 51,073 horse-power.<sup>14</sup> This was less than one-fifth of the horse-power required for all the wool machinery in the United States, and only about one-sixteenth of the power required to move our cotton machinery.

<sup>14</sup> Amount and cost of power in various industries in the United States and Massachusetts according to census of 1900:

<i>Industry.</i>	<i>Horse-power.</i>	<i>Fuel.</i>	<i>Power and Heat.</i>	<i>Total Cost.</i>
Cotton . . . . .	805,126	\$6,039,485	\$382,676	\$6,422,161
Wool . . . . .	274,262	3,362,162	206,326	3,568,488
Boot and shoe (U.S.) . . .	51,073			958,928
Boot and shoe (Mass.) . . .	18,411	264,902	155,155	450,027

In 1900 the boot and shoe industry of the entire country spent for fuel and rented power and heat less than a million dollars, less than one-third the amount spent by the wool industry for the same purposes and less than one-sixth the amount spent by the cotton industry.<sup>14</sup> In three Massachusetts textile mills alone with which I am closely identified more than three-fourths as much horse-power was utilized in 1905 as in all the boot and shoe factories of the Commonwealth in 1900. With the additions that are now planned for these three mills, the consumption of coal, the amount of horse-power developed, the cost of power and heating, will exceed that of the entire boot and shoe industry in Massachusetts in 1900, and will be about one-half of that of the boot and shoe industry of the United States in the same year. So relatively insignificant indeed is the quantity of coal consumed in the boot and shoe manufactories in Massachusetts, that if the present duty on coal were removed, and the boot and shoe manufacturers received the whole equivalent of that duty, the saving of cost to them would be less than \$50,000 per annum. As a matter of fact, however, the full amount of the duty, namely, 67 cents per ton, could not be saved. There appears to be no obstacle in the way of importing bituminous coal at the merely nominal duty of 15 cents per ton. During the year ending June 30, 1906, 668,728 tons of coal were imported at the port of Boston, yet only 76,028 tons yielded the full duty of 67 cents per ton. The remaining 592,700 tons, in the form of slack or culm (such coal as will pass through a half-inch screen), yielded only 15 cents per ton. This would indicate that most of the duty may be evaded by converting coal into a species of slack or culm. The amount of duty actually realized on our imported coal is trivial.

I examined the question of free coal with great care on a former occasion, and came to the conclusion that the manufacturers of New England would gain nothing thereby. Surely, if free coal is of much importance to the boot and shoe industry, it is several times more so to the textile industries, and yet I am not aware that among the latter the idea is

prevalent that free coal would reduce the cost of power necessary to move their machinery or increase their earnings.<sup>15</sup> The coal mines of Nova Scotia produce less than 2 per cent of the quantity of bituminous coal mined in this country. Canada secures only a portion of her coal from Nova Scotia. Her imports of coal are about one and one-half times Nova Scotia's entire production. Under such conditions it is difficult to understand how the removal of the duty on coal could have any appreciable effect.

I am not one of those who believe that the industries of Massachusetts and New England are decadent and need some special elixir to invigorate them and give them new life, but I am convinced that if they do need a tonic something far more stimulating is required than free coal.

#### THE REAL DIFFICULTY DISTURBING THE BOOT AND SHOE MANUFACTURERS.

The real difficulty — if there be any — under which the boot and shoe industry labors, is the increased cost of the materials entering into its product, especially leather. This is due to perfectly obvious natural causes, which are not attributable to the tariff law. Within recent years the Russo-Japanese war and the expanding automobile industry have caused an immensely increased demand for leather, and have strained to the utmost the producing capacity of the countries furnishing hides to the world's consumers. In addition, China, Japan, South Africa, and South America have recently become consumers of leather on an increased scale, so that while the uses to which leather is put have been multiplied, the population by which its products are needed has also been increasing rapidly. The expansion in the cattle industry has not kept pace with the increase in the consumption of leather.

#### SIMILAR CONDITION IN ENGLAND.

The shoe manufacturers of Great Britain have even more to contend with than our own. They are face to face with

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<sup>15</sup> Free Coal: Would it give New England Manufacturers Cheaper Fuel? By William Whitman, Boston, 1891.



increased prices of materials, and the shoe dealers have decided, in convention, to advance the prices of shoes from 40 to 50 per cent. The reason assigned for the change is the advance in the cost of hides and leather in England. In a recent report Consul Ham, of Hull, describes the critical condition of the trade at Leicester, a condition which, notwithstanding our duty of 15 per cent, is far more serious than in this country.<sup>16</sup> Further reports indicate the general scarcity of hides throughout the world.<sup>17</sup> The difficulties of the English shoe manufacturers have undoubtedly been materially increased during the past two years by the diversion of foreign hides from her markets to ours, because of the unexampled prosperity of our domestic leather and shoe industry during those years. The importations of hides in the past year were about double those of 1904.

With the shoe industry of England in such a plight and with prices for leather in free trade England soaring as well as in the United States, other causes than the duty must be accountable for a condition which is not exceptional to this country alone. The increase in value of all our imported hides clearly indicates that the high prices are not peculiar to the United States, or to any duty we may have. During the past eight years our imported hides have increased in value about 25 per cent.<sup>18</sup> The average foreign

<sup>16</sup> See "Monthly Consular and Trade Reports," No. 306, March, 1906, page 162.

<sup>17</sup> See "Monthly Bulletin of the International Bureau of the American Republics," January, 1906, page 175. See also "Yorkshire Post," June 1, 1906, for Report of Scarcity in Germany.

<sup>18</sup> Imports of hides entered for consumption paying duty, fiscal years 1898 to 1905 inclusive, showing quantity, value, average value per pound, total amount of duty collected, and amount of drawback paid on exported leather, under law of 1897.

Fiscal year ending June 30.	Quantity Pounds.	Value.	Ave. Value per Pound.	Duty Collected.	Drawback Paid		Total Amount of Draw- back.
					On Sole Leather.	On Other Leather.	
1898 . . .	112,440,602	\$11,871,937	10.6 cts.	\$1,780,791			
1899 . . .	125,264,888	13,012,788	10.4 "	1,951,918			
1900 . . .	154,361,494	18,182,906	11.8 "	2,727,436	\$387,295		
1901 . . .	120,567,034	14,872,252	12.3 "	2,230,838	277,969		
1902 . . .	150,994,917	17,669,467	11.7 "	2,650,420	357,100	\$284,204	\$641,304
1903 . . .	131,705,012	16,116,392	12.2 "	2,417,459	456,241	261,839	721,080
1904 . . .	83,652,950	10,815,206	12.9 "	1,621,827	491,395	166,044	657,439
1905 . . .	111,535,719	14,578,019	13.1 "	2,185,382	431,823	148,823	680,646

Prior to 1898 the imports of hides were not classified separately from calf skins, and consequently there are no means of ascertaining the foreign value of hides imported prior to

prices for River Plate hides as shown by the actual invoices thereof have also increased from 25 to 30 per cent.<sup>19</sup>

These high prices of leather and hides cannot be attributed to a duty which is only 15 per cent, and exists only in the United States, and the boot and shoe manufacturers might just as well admit that the high prices are due to a perfectly natural cause, an enormously increased demand. It is not the first time that a large demand has increased prices, though it may possibly be the first time that a change of legislation has been sought to regulate the fundamental law of demand and supply.

The shoe industry is not the only one compelled to face rising prices. The rubber manufacturers face the same difficulty.<sup>20</sup> It is not the only industry on whose raw material a duty is levied. Certainly it is in no more difficult position than the wool manufacture, which was obliged to pay an average price of 57 per cent more for wool during the past year than during the last sixteen years. Even the cotton manufacture which has free cotton has experienced difficulties with which those of the shoe industry are slight in comparison. Would it not be better to accept the situation, attribute it to its natural causes, and announce an advance in prices justified by conditions?

1898. This table, however, shows conclusively that there was no increase in average value until 1900, and that in 1902 the average value under the present duty declined from the two previous years, but since that time there has been an increase (which may be considered equivalent, on the whole, to about 25 per cent for the last eight years).

<sup>19</sup> AVERAGE PRICES FOR RIVER PLATE HIDES FOR THE NINE YEARS 1897 to 1905 INCLUSIVE.

Years.	Montevideo.	Buenos Ayres Clasif'd.	Buenos Ayres Desechos.	Winter Hair Cordovas.	Summer Hair Cordovas.	Entre Rios.	Santa Fe.	Naturales.
1897 .	16½ cts.	16 cts.	15 cts.	16 cts.	14½ cts.	15 cts.		14½ cts.
1898 .	16½ "	16 "	15 "	16 "	14½ "		15½ cts.	
1899 .		17½ "	16½ "	18 "	16 "		15½ "	16 "
1900 .	18½ "			18 "				
1901 .	19½ "	18½ "	17½ "	19 "		17½ "		
1902 .	19 "	18½ "	17½ "		16½ "			
1903 .	19½ "	18 "	17 "	19½ "	16½ "	17½ "	17½ "	17 "
1904 .	20½ "	19½ "	18½ "	19½ "	17 "	18½ "	18½ "	
1905 .	21½ "	20 "	19 "	20½ "		19½ "		19 "

The above prices include foreign cost and freight to Boston (in bond), but do not include insurance, bankers' charges and profit. The above prices are based on actual invoices during the period and show an advance of from 25 to 30 per cent.

<sup>20</sup> See "New York Sun," June 13, 1906.

## WHO WILL BE BENEFITED BY THE REPEAL OF THE DUTY?

What the people wish to know — and it is the people for whom consideration is always professed — is, how much the removal is going to help them? How dearly do the American people pay for the tariff on hides? What does the 15 per cent mean to the consumer? Is this “tax” to be diverted from those who are alleged to be benefited by it into the coffers of the shoe manufacturers, or is it to be presented as a gratuity to the people? If to the latter, it will be done in response to no demand; for we are said to be the best and cheapest shod people in the world, and no complaint is heard from the people of the pressure of this duty. If it is to be simply a transfer of benefit from one set of beneficiaries to another, then there will be still less interest taken in the proposal.

We have seen that farmers feel that they profit by the duty. We have seen that one of the members of the trust has stated his willingness to join in a removal of the duty, provided the shoemakers would advocate free shoes. The farmers feel they would lose by the removal of the duty, and the trust, knowing the attitude of the shoe manufacturer, is indifferent. The people at large, the consumers, have not clamored for the removal of the duty; neither has the farmer nor the trust. The shoe manufacturer has. Is it not reasonable to suppose that the shoe manufacturer expects to gain somewhat if he succeeds in his efforts? We certainly have sufficient evidence from one of the spokesmen of the shoe industry to warrant the inference.

On this point a speech delivered in the House of Representatives on January 19, 1906, by the Hon. James Breck Perkins of Rochester, New York, is enlightening. He was spokesman for the shoe industry of his city, and was advocating free hides. He took the position that the middleman gets the benefit of the tariff, and that if the duty were taken off, the competition of South America in hides would have to be met on a lower basis.

Mr. Norris, of Nebraska, asked him this question :

If that position be true, the only advantage that this legislation which you propose would have would be to take away the profit that goes to the middleman in the cattle business and give it to the man who manufactures shoes ?

To which Mr. Perkins replied :

I think that is a fact. I think it would take it away from Armour & Co. and members of the great beef combination and give it to those employing a hundred thousand citizens in their manufactories.

Compare this conclusion with an analysis of the contentions of ex-Governor Douglas. Mr. Douglas declares that there is an immense profit to somebody from the duty on hides. He says the farmer doesn't get the profit, but maintains that the beef trust gets it and keeps it. He is careful not to favor a removal of the duty unless accompanied by free sole leather, for fear that the tanner will get it and keep it. He maintains that if the profit should be passed on to the shoe manufacturer it will be distributed both to home and foreign consumers in the form of cheaper shoes.

But whether the trust or the shoe manufacturers would reap the benefit is perhaps unimportant. What the people really want to know is, what would they gain by the removal of the duty ? In my opinion they would gain nothing, for they would not reap the benefit. But assuming that the consumer would reap the entire benefit, let us consider his gain.

WHAT WOULD THE CONSUMER GAIN IF HE REAPED THE  
ENTIRE BENEFIT OF THE REMOVAL OF THE DUTY ?

We may disregard for a moment the beneficiary of the duty and study the effect of the removal of the duty on the price of shoes. Various estimates have been given. The majority opinion places the difference in price on the average pair of shoes at two cents, — the cost of a postage stamp. It is only fair to say, however, that by some the difference is placed as high as five cents a pair ; but in either event the difference



to the consumer is so small as to be inappreciable in the year's expenditures. On all the shoes made in the country last year it was placed by Mr. Perkins at \$4,000,000 on an output which must have been considerably in excess of \$261,028,580, the product of the census year 1900. The output of boots and shoes for the census year 1905 was \$320,107,458.

#### HISTORY REPEATS ITSELF.

Few persons remember, and perhaps many in the business do not know, that more than thirty-five years ago a petition, asking the Congress of the United States not only to remove the duty from hides, lastings, and webbings, but for the complete overthrow of the protective system, was signed by some four hundred men engaged in the business in this Commonwealth and adjoining States.

It was printed in the "Shoe and Leather Reporter" of June 29, 1871, and it is well at this juncture, when the successors of those signers are predicting all sorts of dire disasters to their business, to note the arguments then advanced in favor of their demand, the virulent attack on the protective policy, and the selfishness of the position taken by the signers of the petition. In my opinion, this examination will show how utterly false the premises were on which it was founded, how groundless were the fears therein expressed, how hysterical were the men in that industry three decades ago, and how like them are their successors of to-day. If such examination shows they were mistaken in their fears, then, it seems that one is justified in concluding that there is no more ground for the gloomy forebodings and prognostications of to-day than for those of 1871, and that the cry of "wolf, wolf" does not necessarily mean danger to the industry.

The petition is as follows :

#### *A Protest Against the Tariff by the Shoe Manufacturers of the United States :*

The undersigned, engaged in the manufacture of boots and shoes, desire to call the attention of their fellow manufacturers and of the public to certain facts illustra-

tive of the bearing of the present tariff upon their industry. The legislation of other countries has aimed to secure for manufacturers and artisans the raw materials for their industry at the cheapest possible rates. Every country pursuing this policy has rapidly developed its manufactures. The opposite system has generally prevailed in our country, and has retarded the naturally vigorous growth of our industries. Whatever measure of prosperity they have attained has been in spite of an adverse and depressing system of taxation, and is due to the intelligence, skill, and industry of our people. These have enabled them to triumph over both natural and artificial difficulties.

The tariff tax upon our leather amounts to 35 per cent. From the earliest periods of our history Americans have enjoyed such advantages in the manufacture of leather as have enabled them to undersell all competing nations. This tax, therefore, is totally unnecessary as a protective measure.

The duties on cotton and silk-rubber webbing are 35 and 50 per cent respectively. As few of these goods are manufactured in this country, these protective duties are benefits to the few and burdens to the many. The duties on lastings and serges are 85 per cent. Although these highly protective duties have been levied for four years, they have succeeded in stimulating only two establishments to engage in making these articles, and that to a limited extent. Moreover, the quality of their products is too inferior to supersede the use of the imported goods.

The combined taxes upon all the articles forming the materials of our industry yield the Government a revenue of only \$3,500,000, while they impose upon the manufacturers of boots and shoes a tax of \$18,000,000, which must eventually be paid by the wearers of these necessary articles.

The direct consequence of these protective taxes is such an increase in the cost of our products as prevents our competing with the manufacture of boots and shoes in other countries. Of late years there has been an increase of 25 per cent in the productive power of a given amount of capital and labor engaged in our manufacture, through improved machinery and new processes. This gain, which should have resulted in cheaper boots and shoes, has been completely nullified by pro-

protective taxes. The legislation of our country has driven our products from the markets of Canada, Mexico, the West Indies, and South America, which we had enjoyed for more than a century. It has transferred the manufacture of our products to a great degree to Canada, where it enjoys greater advantages, and is subject to fewer impediments, in the prosecution of business. Thus our country has to this extent lost the benefits of this industry and given her wealth to others, through a system of tariff taxation, professedly framed to foster and encourage American industry, but which expels it from America, and increases the wealth of other nations.

In addition to the direct influences of the tariff upon our production, the system of protective duties indirectly imposes grievous burdens upon it by increasing the cost of our buildings, engines, machinery, tools, and supplies, as well as railroad transportation. It raises the price of house rent, fuel, clothing, and all supplies, so as to render extravagant wages a necessity to our workmen. This apparent increase of wages, however, yields no substantial benefit to our workmen, because it is all consumed in the enhanced cost of living.

We believe that an entire removal of all protective duties would greatly advance our industry, as we should then have the markets of the world in which to sell our products, thus largely increasing the labor employed, and the profits of manufacturing. We, moreover, believe that the enhanced wealth and comfort of our own people, consequent upon a change of system, would be evidenced in an increased consumption of our goods. A reduction in the duties levied upon the articles used in our manufacture is demanded by the interests of all capitalists and laborers engaged in the boot and shoe industry.

The magnitude of our industry, which is larger in the value of its product and the number of hands employed than any other single industry in the country, should insure a careful consideration of our reasonable demands. While the iron, the cotton, and other interests are constantly deferred to by our legislators when they request protection, it will not appear unreasonable that the boot and shoe industry should claim from their fellow citizens and from Congress a careful consideration of the injuries inflicted upon it by the policy of miscalled protection, and the manifest advantages which would result, at least to the largest manufacture in the United States, from its overthrow.

Again in 1890 a similar lament was heard throughout the State, direful predictions were made, and a petition was promulgated asking for a reduction of the duty on pig iron, scrap iron, and scrap steel, and for free coal and coke and iron. Gov. William E. Russell, in speaking of certain Massachusetts industries, said they were "folding their tents like the Arab and silently stealing away." Again, to-day, we hear the lament and clamor in the midst of our prosperity, and we may well pause to consider whether events have verified in any way the predictions of our earlier tariff revisionists.

#### EVENTS HAVE DISPROVED ASSERTIONS IN PETITION OF 1871.

It will be observed that results have hardly supported the allegation that our system of levying a tariff on some raw materials has retarded the naturally vigorous growth of our industries. The United States is to-day acknowledged as the greatest manufacturing country in the world. To whatever cause this unexampled success is due — whether because of or in spite of our long established policy — the fact is that marvelous progress has been made by our manufacturing industries, a progress which has challenged wide attention and excited the admiration of the world.

The signers of this petition cared nothing for the effect on other industries the granting of their request would have. They did not believe in the principle of "live and let live," but were bent solely on securing what they considered advantageous to them. In their view of affairs it was a race, and the hindmost was to be left unaided in the contest with skilful and firmly established foreign competitors. If they did not hesitate to destroy a kindred industry in their search for supposed benefits for their own, it is not surprising that they depreciated the products of domestic mills making lastings and serges, and declared them of "too inferior a quality to supersede the imported goods." It is difficult to conceive of more supremely selfish action. Feeling secure in their own industry they had no concern for another. I fear, in view of the past record, that the position of those who now demand a limited number of free materials, rather than the overthrow



of the protective system, is actuated more from caution than any less favorable leaning toward free trade.

In 1871, as now, it was argued that the duties denounced prevented competition in other countries; that the protective legislation had driven our products from the markets of countries in which they had been for a long time sold; that the boot and shoe manufacture, to a great degree, had been forced to Canada, and that our wealth had been expelled from the country to the gain of rivals. The entire removal of the protective duties was desired to greatly enhance the shoe industry and enable it to sell its product in the markets of the world.

#### THE BOOT AND SHOE INDUSTRY HAS ENJOYED A HEALTHY GROWTH.

The act of 1872 repealed the duty on hides, reduced the duty on sole leather one half, but retained duties on upper and other leather. The Congress refused to grant all the relief declared to be needed by this important industry, and the question naturally arises, what has been its progress in the last thirty-five years? The growth has been at a steady rate of more than forty-three million pairs a decade between 1870 and 1890, and an increase in value of nearly fifty million dollars every ten years. In 1870 there was no report of factory product, but 80,627,244 pairs were returned as having been made in the country. The figures for 1880, 1900, and 1905 measure a healthy growth.<sup>21</sup>

Not only has the industry greatly expanded in this country, but its transfer to Canada, which was stated by the petition of 1871 as having occurred, has been arrested. In addition, the development of the industry in Canada, which showed good growth between 1870 and 1880, has remained practically stationary in the past twenty years. The Canadian census shows that the value of the product in 1870

#### <sup>21</sup> UNITED STATES.

		<i>Pairs.</i>	<i>Value.</i>
1880	. . . . .	125,478,511	\$168,050,354
1900	. . . . .	210,235,419	261,028,580
1905	. . . . .	242,110,035	320,107,458

was \$7,927,155; in 1880 it was \$17,895,903, and in 1900, including all shoes made from rubber, felt, and cloth, in addition to those made from leather, it was but \$18,481,216. Contrast the growth of the industry in the two countries and decide whether the views and predictions of the alarmists of 1871 were correct.

On the contrary, this beneficent, useful, and necessary industry has grown consistently with the prodigious growth of the country, all the time supplying the entire footwear used by our millions of liberal purchasers and expanding its exports to such a value as to closely approximate those of Great Britain and to assume second position among the exporting countries of the world. A glance at the exports of the United States and the United Kingdom for the past thirteen years will disclose their extent and value and the rapid growth of those from this country.<sup>22</sup>

#### GROWTH IN EXPORTS OF BOOTS AND SHOES MORE RAPID SINCE 1897 THAN BEFORE.

The significant fact revealed in the statistics of our exports of boots and shoes<sup>22</sup> is this: since 1897, the year in which the duty on hides, now so bitterly complained of, was im-

<sup>22</sup> Table prepared by the Department of Commerce and Labor, through its Bureau of Statistics, shows:

*Exports of Boots and Shoes from the United States and the United Kingdom respectively, 1893 to 1905.*

CALENDAR YEAR.	United States.		United Kingdom.	
	Amount.	Value.	Amount.	Value.
	<i>Pairs.</i>		<i>Pairs.</i>	
1893 . . . . .	583,003	\$726,210	8,316,588	\$8,259,580
1894 . . . . .	723,517	880,179	8,022,756	7,854,901
1895 . . . . .	965,196	1,234,871	8,095,440	7,692,379
1896 . . . . .	1,141,033	1,596,391	8,940,216	8,754,979
1897 . . . . .	1,230,921	1,684,649	7,707,168	7,681,624
1898 . . . . .	1,391,220	1,944,423	7,667,040	7,270,215
1899 . . . . .	2,644,370	3,668,435	7,241,976	6,942,588
1900 . . . . .	3,062,336	4,626,256	7,562,928	7,198,274
1901 . . . . .	3,796,307	5,997,463	8,142,516	8,045,250
1902 . . . . .	4,109,629	6,470,412	9,466,056	9,229,823
1903 . . . . .	4,579,164	7,244,726	9,286,296	8,980,542
1904 . . . . .	4,806,279	7,319,775	8,107,824	7,692,019
1905 . . . . .	5,672,221	8,650,012	9,287,388	9,160,184

posed, the growth in exports of boots and shoes by the United States has been more rapid than before. We have added five million pairs of shoes to our exports since 1893, and we have increased the average value per pair 23 per cent. The English exports in 1904 were actually fewer than in 1893, and in 1895 were less than a million in excess of the number a dozen years earlier, while the average value of those exports has remained about stationary — at less than a dollar a pair.

We have not lost the trade of Canada or Mexico or the West Indies. On the contrary, the trade with those countries has expanded at a much more rapid rate since 1897 than from 1876 to 1897, during which time hides were free of duty.<sup>23</sup>

The insignificant twenty-six thousand dollars of exports to Mexico in 1895 was increased to \$878,535 in 1904, and that country was our fourth best customer. Within the same period the exports to the West Indies increased from \$360,019 to \$1,585,909, and those to British North America grew from \$176,616 to \$944,247, the two countries occupying second and third rank, respectively, among our customers.

The United Kingdom exports her boots and shoes principally to her colonies — to South Africa, British East Indies, the British West Indies, Australia, and New Zealand — and comparatively few to other countries. Even to some of her colonies her exports have not been increasing in recent years, and her total exports for the past dozen years have remained nearly stationary.

The United States exports shoes to many parts of the world, to North America, Europe, where the United Kingdom is our best customer, to Mexico, South Africa, and other

<sup>23</sup> EXPORTS OF BOOTS AND SHOES FROM THE UNITED STATES. — FISCAL YEARS.

COUNTRIES.	1876.	1880.	1885.	1890.	1895.
South America . . . . .	\$20,235	\$79,191	\$123,569	\$31,560	\$47,828
Mexico . . . . .	79,153	53,446	48,701	38,959	26,532
West Indies, including Bermuda . . .	118,984	123,307	188,544	320,155	360,019
Br. No. America . . . . .	234,448	58,047	68,929	60,073	176,616
To all foreign countries . . . . .	526,786	133,705	598,151	662,974	1,010,228

countries.<sup>24</sup> The figures below indicate the value of the boots and shoes exported in the calendar year 1905 by the principal manufacturing nations, the number of pairs unfortunately not being obtainable.<sup>25</sup>

The total value of the boot and shoe exports of the manufacturing and exporting nations of the world, including the United States, is \$31,017,187.

#### A STARTLING PREDICTION.

An eminent, if not the most eminent, shoe manufacturer in the United States has predicted that if the duty on hides and sole leather were removed "the shoe manufacturers of this country could in a few years increase their export business by \$100,000,000, annually."<sup>26</sup> So startling a statement from such an authoritative source commands some comment. There are certain facts which should be borne in mind.

In 1905 the boot and shoe exports of all the manufacturing and exporting nations of the world amounted to about

<sup>24</sup> EXPORTS OF BOOTS AND SHOES FROM THE UNITED STATES IN THE CALENDAR YEAR 1904.

COUNTRIES TO WHICH EXPORTED.	Amount.	Value.
	<i>Pairs.</i>	
United Kingdom . . . . .	809,556	\$1,757,724
West Indies . . . . .	1,680,629	1,585,909
British North America . . . . .	559,691	944,247
Mexico . . . . .	550,390	878,535
British Australasia . . . . .	338,032	644,270
Germany . . . . .	124,591	291,177
Central America . . . . .	211,235	267,586
British Africa . . . . .	113,596	229,841
South America (except Colombia) . . . . .	106,220	164,328
Colombia . . . . .	103,718	140,733
Philippine Islands . . . . .	64,745	106,581
Other countries . . . . .	143,876	308,844
Total . . . . .	4,806,279	\$7,319,775

<sup>25</sup> Value of Exports of Boots and Shoes in calendar year 1905:

United Kingdom . . . . .	\$9,160,184
United States . . . . .	8,650,012
Austria-Hungary . . . . .	4,224,389
France . . . . .	3,106,335
Spain . . . . .	2,845,484
Germany . . . . .	2,335,494
Italy . . . . .	384,789
Belgium . . . . .	310,500
Total . . . . .	\$31,017,187

<sup>26</sup> See "Boston Herald" of June 3, 1906.



\$31,000,000 in value. It is startling to be told, therefore, that by the removal of a 15 per cent duty on less than one-fourth of whatever raw materials are imported for the industry in this one country alone, our shoe manufacturers "could in a few years increase their export business . . . annually" to almost 300 per cent of the export business of all countries combined. Where could they obtain sufficient raw materials for such an increased supply? To-day all the raw materials available for the manufacture of boots and shoes are consumed. The demand for those raw materials has already outrun the supply. It is impossible to increase finished products in a greater ratio than the raw materials entering into those products, and it must be remembered that the production of hides and skins, owing to their very nature, can only be increased gradually. Such production will not respond actively to any increased demand for hides and skins alone. The supply of hides and skins is controlled by agricultural conditions and the world's demand for animal food. If hides are worth but one-fifth of the cattle from which they are taken, a decrease in the demand for animal food might diminish the supply of hides in spite of an increasing demand for such hides. But assuming that the production of hides can be increased at will, as some appear to believe, to what countries could our shoe manufacturers send their additional exports? An attempt to answer these questions will prove enlightening to those who may have been misled by the illusion of such a colossal increase. The people of this country ought not to be led to indulge in such flights of fancy. It is time that illusions of this kind should be dispelled.

#### MASSACHUSETTS BOOT AND SHOE MANUFACTURERS HAVE PROSPERED.

Of our growing and increasing business at home and abroad the shoe manufacturers of Massachusetts have evidently been securing their fair share. During the five years from 1900 to 1905 gains made all along the line are a sufficient refutation of the repeated gloomy predictions that are din-

into our ears concerning the very "perturbed" condition of the industry. Such a condition may exist, but it is not reflected by the figures just issued by the United States Census Bureau, which mirror conditions as they were one year ago. According to that authority the boot and shoe industry in the Commonwealth has made enormous gains over 1900.<sup>27</sup>

It is to be noted that the cost of the materials used in the boot and shoe industry has increased but 16.8 per cent. This is at least 8.8 per cent less than the corresponding advance in the other manufactures of the Commonwealth. Within the past five years the cost of the raw materials in all the industries of Massachusetts has increased 25.6 per cent. Furthermore, the value of the product of the boot and shoe industry shows an advance of 23.2, almost as great as that of the other manufactures, which is 23.8 per cent.

Of twelve principal cities in Massachusetts no two have shown such gratifying progress between 1900 and 1905 as Brockton and Lynn, where the manufacture of boots and shoes predominates.<sup>28</sup> The returns from Brockton show even greater gains.<sup>29</sup> These are the facts. Why, therefore, do we

<sup>27</sup> Increase in Massachusetts Boot and Shoe Industry since 1900 :

	<i>Per cent.</i>
Capital . . . . .	31.8
Salaries officials, clerks, etc., in number . . . . .	33.5
and their salaries . . . . .	30.5
Average number of wage earners . . . . .	6.8
and their wages . . . . .	19.5
Miscellaneous expenses . . . . .	72.8
Cost of materials used . . . . .	16.8
Value of products . . . . .	23.2

<sup>28</sup> STATISTICS OF PROGRESS OF LYNN.

The census summary shows the gains over 1900 to be as follows :

	<i>Per cent.</i>
Capital employed . . . . .	44.3
Salaries officials and clerks, in number . . . . .	45.2
and their salaries . . . . .	60.5
Average number of wage earners . . . . .	31.5
Amount of their wages . . . . .	47.3
Miscellaneous expenses . . . . .	77.9
Cost of materials used . . . . .	33.3
Value of products . . . . .	39.8

<sup>29</sup> STATISTICS OF PROGRESS OF BROCKTON.

The census summary shows the gains over 1900 to be as follows :

	<i>Per cent.</i>
Capital employed . . . . .	59.2
Salaries officials and clerks, in number . . . . .	47.4
and their salaries . . . . .	45.6
Average number of wage earners . . . . .	34.9
Amount of their wages . . . . .	53.
Miscellaneous expenses . . . . .	147.
Cost of materials used . . . . .	47.1
Value of products . . . . .	52.

hear such lamentations from the boot and shoe manufacturers? Is it possible that they are mistaken? We are reminded of their predecessors of 1871, who signed a petition full of dark foreboding, yet the industry prospered and has prospered ever since.

#### THE DEMAND IS Milder NOW THAN IN 1871.

The present movement for free hides and free leather is not a new one in the boot and shoe trade. As a matter of fact, this demand, with its restricted number of articles scheduled for the free list, is modest compared with the ultimatum of 1871. The shoe manufacturers before agreeing to free shoes, ask for free hides, free leather, free coal, and free materials. They cannot help but know that such a request should not be granted. It is not possible to arrange the duties on the numerous manufactured articles entering their product so that foreign competition would be permitted on their materials and not be granted to all other industries using the same materials. That is not only an impossible arrangement but other industries are not in a position to withstand unlimited foreign competition. Even were such favoritism possible, it is not likely that the boot and shoe industry could long be successful if the other important industries languish. There is an interdependence, a solidarity of industries which requires a prosperous agriculture to produce a prosperous manufacture, and prosperous manufacture in one branch to accompany prosperity in allied industries.

#### STABILITY IS PREFERABLE TO UNCERTAINTY.

My experience in the wool manufacture extending over the most prosperous period of its history in this country has taught me that success can and does accompany a duty on our raw materials, and that the most difficult years were those during which our markets were flooded with free wool and our manufacturers overwhelmed by the flood of foreign imports of woollens and worsteds. I have learned from my knowledge of the discord and instability of more than fifty

years in the early history of the wool manufacture how important stability and accord are. My experience is the basis of my belief in the folly of attempting to wrest from the agriculturalists of the country any of the benefits they experience by reason of our tariff laws, and we should be satisfied with the laws which have brought us all such a bountiful prosperity.

#### OUR EXPERIENCE OF THE NINETIES.

This movement is a recrudescence of what occurred in the early nineties. At that time the advocates of free raw materials went up and down the length and breadth of the land attributing all the ills under which we were then supposed to be suffering to the lack of them, predicting stagnation without them and a great cheapness and expansion if they were obtained. Fair promises, rosy-colored predictions were made, but not realized. It is not unfair to liken the results of that experience to what will happen if this agitation is followed to its logical conclusion. It is unnecessary to recall the years of doubt and disaster which preceded and followed the adoption of that policy. Few who survived those lean, troublous years for American industry care to experience a repetition of them, or even an approach to them. The prescriptions then given for our supposed ailments destroyed too many patients. I look askance when they are offered a second time. The wisdom of the physicians and the efficacy of the remedy I doubt, and I doubt them more to-day than ever, for our country is more prosperous than ever before in its history.

Yet the boot and shoe manufacturers clamor. We have seen (*a*) that they suffer from no foreign competition; (*b*) that far less than one-quarter of their imported raw materials are dutiable; (*c*) that the net duty on their entire industry is very, very small; (*d*) that the importation of their chief raw materials and exportation of their products has not been hindered; (*e*) that the amount and value of their products has increased enormously; (*f*) that they require less power, less coal, and less capital, proportionately, than almost any other



industry; (*g*) that their capital is remarkably productive; (*h*) that with all their alleged troubles they are not as badly off as the manufacturers in other countries; that they enjoy the best home market in the world, practically free from foreign competition, a position occupied by few industries, if any, in the land, and have a better and larger home supply of hides than any shoe manufacturing country in the world.

They clamor for a change in the tariff, a change that will not benefit the consumer to any appreciable extent if he reaps the benefit, a change that, according to the testimony of one of their representatives, will bring profit to the shoe manufacturer alone. How clearly we understand the animus of their demand when we bear in mind the foregoing facts and pause to consider that all the other manifold consumers of hides and leather in this country have made no complaint. The saddlery and harness manufacturers, the farmers and others dependent upon leather in their work are satisfied. What is more, the people, the consumers of boots and shoes, whose interest should receive first consideration, find no fault. The policy of the boot and shoe manufacturers is selfish and I can but express again the belief I have expressed before, that there is no room for such a policy in this country.

#### NO ROOM FOR A SELFISH POLICY.

No one great industry should attempt to thrive at the expense of another. No one locality or section of the country should attempt to profit at the loss or expense of another locality or section. There can be no economic gain in transferring benefits, if such exist, from one class to another class, of producing beneficiaries. The greater relative prosperity that may exist in one industry than in others can only be secured from the prosperity of those others. Excessive relative gains can only be temporary, existing only during a process of readjustment. Furthermore, such excessive relative gains are distributed ultimately among other industries, according to an economic law. If we envy the profits of others and attempt to limit those profits in order to divert the flow of capital toward our own industries, we impair the

wealth of the world and ultimately our own industries in their just proportion. Such, in my opinion, is the natural law in the industrial world, the economic law which causes in the end the distribution of the results of any particular prosperity among all classes.

Let us in Massachusetts at least continue to recognize the right of the agriculturalist to share in the benefits of the protective tariff. We should welcome his aid in its preservation, for I am convinced when the alienation of the farmer from his faith in that principle is accomplished, the day will have arrived, which has been so anxiously striven for by all free traders, when the revenue system will be exchanged for one in which the protective policy will not be considered by those entrusted with the enactment of our customs laws. Let us be guided by the experience and wisdom of our late Senator Hoar, so long trusted in this Commonwealth, who, as late as 1895, said:

He is a purblind manufacturer, whether in New England or elsewhere, who supposes that the American people will consent to continue the protection on his own industry which is denied the farmers and the wool-growers of the great West.

WILLIAM WHITMAN.

## Editorial and Industrial Miscellany.

### WILLIAM WHITMAN ON THE HIDE DUTY.

WE print as a leading article in this number of the Bulletin "The Tariff Revisionist: An Example of the Nature of his Demand," prepared by Mr. William Whitman. He discusses the question of free hides and some of the demands of the shoe manufacturers of New England, a phase of tariff agitation urged with varying degrees of earnestness since the imposition of the duty and made more or less prominent in Massachusetts within recent years.

Mr. Whitman makes it clear that he bears no ill feeling toward the boot and shoe industry, an important one of the Commonwealth, but he attempts, and we think succeeds, to refute some of the statements and arguments urged as reasons for the repeal of the duties of which complaint is made. Particularly effective is his handling of the demand for free coal. He shows how small a quantity is used in the boot and shoe industry in Massachusetts and of what slight importance free coal would be to it. But even if coal were free, the Nova Scotia coal, he argues, would have to be laid down in Boston more than one dollar a ton cheaper than domestic qualities to be attractive to New England manufacturers. It is of inferior steam producing power, a fact he pointed out as long ago as 1891. These statements are reinforced by the recent action of the New England Gas and Coke Company, which has announced that the contract with the Dominion Coal Company for its supply of coal, which expired December 1, will not be renewed, domestic coal superseding it. Concerning this action the writer of the financial columns of the "Boston Advertiser" on November 16 said:

"I understand that the failure to renew the contract is due to the very low quality of the coal supplied. This has been growing poorer and has given much dissatisfaction. The coal hereafter will cost considerably more than the present supply, but it is expected that the difference will be more than offset by the superior quality. A practical gas man, not interested in the matter, tells me that experiments with coal from Nova Scotia and from West Virginia show a decided advantage for the latter, even at much higher cost."

Mr. Whitman displays fairness in statement, moderation in argument, and conducts his case in such a manner as to convince the reader. It is a thorough and comprehensive paper, and in the future will be sought for and consulted by students dealing with this question, whether they favor or disapprove the cause he defends. It is because of this feature that we preserve it in the pages of this publication.

## SIR WILLIAM HENRY PERKIN HONORED.

## GOLDEN JUBILEE OF THE COAL TAR INDUSTRY.

LAST June the fiftieth anniversary of the discovery of "mauve," from which has been developed in the intervening years the great coal tar industry, was celebrated in London, and honors fitting the occasion were bestowed upon Sir William Henry Perkin, the discoverer, and now one of the most prominent of scientists in the realms of chemistry. The chemists and dyestuff manufacturers of the United States, wishing to acknowledge their appreciation of the valuable results flowing from this discovery, which has done so much for many industries, arranged to commemorate the event in October, and secured the presence of the distinguished investigator. This acknowledgment took the form of two important dinners in his honor — one in New York, on October 6, at Delmonico's, and the other in Boston, on October 10, at the new Algonquin Club.

At the former, at which there were four hundred guests, including many of the country's conspicuous men in various branches of chemistry and the chemical trade, Sir William Perkin was welcomed to the city by the president of the Board of Aldermen, the Hon. Patrick F. McGowan, representing Mayor McClellan. Dr. William H. Nichols, president of the General Chemical Company, presented to the distinguished guest the first impress of the Perkin medal — the fund for which has been given by Dr. Nichols — which is to be awarded annually to the American chemist who has most distinguished himself in applied chemistry. On one side is a likeness of the man and on the other the words, "To Sir William Perkin, from his American friends, for his distinguished services to the world." Mr. Adolf Kuttroff, treasurer of the Continental Color and Chemical Company, and treasurer of the committee in charge of the banquet, next presented to Sir William Perkin a tea service of eight pieces as a token of gratitude from his American friends, each piece containing an inscription to commemorate some of his important scientific work. Some of these were, "1856 Mauve 1906;" "The Technical Production of Alizarine;" "Anthrapurpurine;" "Perkin Reaction, Synthesis of Coumarin and of Cinnamic Acid;" and "Constant Magnetic Rotary Power of Carbon Derivatives." An honorary membership in the American Chemical Society, having



more than three thousand members, voted unanimously by the society at its June meeting, was presented by Dr. William Francis Hillebrand, president of the society. Other speeches were made by President Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University; the Rev. Dr. S. P. Codman; Herman Schumacher, Professor of Economics at the University of Bonn; Dr. Ira Remsen, president of Johns Hopkins University; Dr. Walter Nernst, inventor of the Nernst lamp; Professor H. W. Wiley, of the Pure Food Commission, and H. A. Metz, Comptroller of New York. Professor Charles F. Chandler, of Columbia University, presided.

The banquet has passed, yet its effect will not be transitory, but lasting. One result will be the establishment in this country of the Perkin Chemical Library. At present no great purely chemical library exists, and it is planned to have the proposed one contain every book of any value to any chemist. Not only that, but it is to contain duplicate books so that any chemist in any section of the country may send to the librarian and secure the book or pamphlet or article desired. This is its great purpose, which, if successfully carried out, ought to greatly stimulate and encourage individual investigations throughout this great and resourceful land.

One of the most interesting and brilliant speeches made at the celebration was that by Dr. Hugo Schweitzer, pupil of Bunsen, leader in research work, and the historian of chemistry. After referring to the impossibility of condensing into the limits of a fifteen-minute speech what should require fifteen hours, and expressing his pleasure in the task, because of his admiration for the genial personality and refined modesty of their guest, he said :

#### SOME RESULTS OF THE DISCOVERY.

It must be a sincere source of congratulation to us that he has braved the perils of a long ocean voyage to honor us with his presence at our celebration of the semi-centennial of the coal tar industry, initiated by the discovery of Perkin's mauve. Only fifty years ago, while engaged in research, having for its object the artificial production of quinine, Perkin, then an 18-year-old assistant of Hofmann, obtained a muddy, dark precipitate, from which he first endeavored to extract certain colorless crystalline substances which might adequately explain the reaction under observation. One day, however, the thought occurred to him to utilize this colored precipitate itself for the dyeing of silk. It is hard to realize to-day what an epoch-making idea it

was at that time to dye fabrics with a substance evolved in the laboratory and having no relation whatever to the dyestuffs then known. It was truly the spark of genius which led Perkin to investigate the dyeing properties of that dark-colored precipitate which would have been cast away by any other scientist of that period, and particularly by his master, Hofmann, who objected to experimenting with anything which did not crystallize, and who had at that time a strong aversion to working with substances which were colored. For the latter, when produced in reactions, were generally regarded as secondary products, and every endeavor was made to get rid of them, so that the other substances associated with them might be examined.

But however great the discovery of mauve, and however much we must admire the courage of the youth who undertook its technical production, yet these steps were only trivial incidents in the immense revolution brought about by Perkin's genius. The greatest obstacles encountered by him, and the most difficult task to be performed, was when he attempted to sell the color to dyers and printers. At that time men of this class worked by the rule of thumb with secret recipes, mostly inherited from their forefathers, and their formulæ, although applicable to natural colors, were not suitable for mauve. Thus Perkin and his associates had to prepare new directions for dyeing and printing and to induce those ultra-conservative dyers to adopt the new methods. It has been almost forgotten that Perkin was the first to introduce the method of dyeing silk in a soap bath, which is commonly employed to-day for all artificial dyestuffs, and that he and Pullar first made use of the mordanting of cotton with the insoluble, inorganic compounds of tannin.

Thus the introduction of mauve completely changed the art of dyeing and printing, simplifying the processes and substituting for the old-time formulæ the scientific recipes furnished by the color manufacturers of the present day. After Perkin had thus removed the obstacles in the path of practical application, it became comparatively easy to introduce other coal tar colors.

But Perkin also paved the way for the discovery of the later coal tar colors by creating commercially aniline and benzole, which up to his time had only been laboratory curiosities. Of the three methods available for obtaining aniline he selected as the most promising the reduction of nitrobenzol, made by nitration of coal tar benzole, and the production of aniline from this source led, shortly after the discovery of mauve, to the discovery of magenta, which opened up a new and immense field for this industry. Aniline from benzole was later found to contain toluidine, which is not present in aniline from indigo or that obtained directly from coal tar, and Perkin truly said in a lecture delivered December 7, 1868: "Had the aniline contained in coal tar or the aniline obtained from indigo been employed for the preparation of mauve, instead of that prepared from commercial benzole,

magenta and its train of colored derivatives would in all probability have remained unknown to the present day from the simple fact that magenta cannot be produced from pure aniline, a second body being also required."

#### EVOLUTION OF INDUSTRY.

The industry thus initiated with a violent impetus soon showed its revolutionizing tendencies, and its vitalizing power in almost every branch of human endeavor. To-day about two thousand individual dyestuffs are known, giving the whole range of the colors of the rainbow, and complying with every demand of taste, fashion, and stability. They surpass in beauty and brilliancy the colors supplied by nature, and, contrary to the impression prevailing among the public, the shades obtained with some of them are faster to the influence of time, light, and chemicals than the fastest which nature produces.

The greatest triumphs of this branch of the industry were the artificial production of alizarine and indigo, and in the technical production of the former our distinguished guest has played a prominent part, solving the problem of its manufacture simultaneously with Graebe and Liebermann, whose English patent antedates that of Perkin by one day.

Coal tar colors, however, are not only used for the dyeing of textile fibers, like wool, silk, cotton, linen, jute, ramie, etc., but for a host of other materials.

The lady's hair is gray, or of a hue not fashionable at the time — coal tar colors will assist her in appearing youthful and gay. In eating the luscious frankfurter, your soul rejoices to see the sanguineous liquid oozing from the meat — alas! coal tar colors have done it, and friend Wiley can prove it. The housewife selects a bright, green broom, on account of its anticipated good wearing quality, but finds, to her sorrow, that coal tar colors furnished the freshness. The product of the hen is replaced by yellow coal tar colors in custard powders, and butter is colored yellow when the dyestuff laboratory of the cow is on a strike. Leather, paper, bones, ivory, feathers, straw, grasses, are all colored, and one of the most interesting applications is the dyeing of whole pieces of even the bulkiest furniture by dipping them in large tanks containing the dyestuffs, which transforms the wood into walnut, mahogany, at your command, as carried out in our big factories in Grand Rapids, and elsewhere.

As coal tar colors are used in this enormous scale, so they are also employed in a Lilliputian manner for staining specimens for examination under the microscope, enabling us to detect and identify bacteria, the finest nerve-ends and other minute elements of animal tissues, and by means of such staining methods, especially with methylene-blue, Koch discovered the bacillus of tuberculosis and cholera, and initiated the modern

battle against preventable infectious diseases. In reciprocation for the excellent reagents supplied him by the dye industry, the histologist brought about the discovery of a new and very important class of colors, and as this instance is one of the most striking demonstrations of the interdependence of practice and theory, I shall relate it to you. In 1886 Ehrlich observed that methylene-blue and some of its congeners were the only colors which stained the living nerve tissue, and in order to determine whether this remarkable property was due to the peculiar constitution of methylene-blue or to the presence of sulfur, he found it desirable to experiment with a substance analogous to methylene-blue, but in which the sulfur was replaced by oxygen. He applied to Dr. Caro, requesting him to assist him in his work by furnishing him the material necessary for his experiments.

#### BIRTH OF COAL TAR.

As a substance of this constitution was then unknown, it was made to order, and in the course of this research the valuable class of rhodamine colors was discovered. Thus experiments with nerve tissues gave birth to the manufacture of coal tar colors of the greatest importance in the textile industries.

The dyestuff methylene-blue and some others are also of great value as internal remedies, and the former is strongly recommended by one of the greatest American authorities for the relief of pain in that horrible disease, cancer.

The medicinal properties of the coal tar colors lead us to that branch of the industry which is next in importance, namely, the coal tar remedies. Incidentally, it may be mentioned here that before these so-called synthetics were introduced, Kolbe had succeeded in 1874 in artificially preparing from coal tar salicylic acid, which up to that time was exclusively a product of nature. Salicylic acid has been, and is still to-day, used extensively as a remedy against rheumatism.

The industry of synthetic drugs owes its origin also to the efforts of chemists to produce quinine artificially. Experiments had shown that by decomposing quinine a substance called quinolin was formed, and the latter was likewise found to exist in coal tar. It was then assumed that quinine must in some way be derived from quinolin, and that perhaps other derivatives of quinolin might possess properties similar to quinine. This trend of thought led to the discovery of the quinolin derivatives, thallin and kairin, which, however, were soon discarded on account of their drastic action and possess only historical interest.

In 1883 Knorr, starting from erroneous deductions concerning the constitution of quinine, and also misinterpreting the constitution of some of the products obtained in his research, inspired the pharmacological study of a substance afterward called antipyrine. This proved to be of the greatest value in medicine and was the first successful synthetic coal tar remedy in the market.



Shortly after the introduction of antipyrine a fortunate accident gave this modern art an unexpected stimulus, diverting the investigation from quinine and uncovering an entirely new field. Kahn and Hepp, two physicians connected with the Strassburg University, were on terms of friendship with a chemist of the Hoechst Works, where Knorr's antipyrine was being manufactured, and requested him, in 1886, to send them some chemically pure naphthalene, which they desired to use internally in the case of a patient suffering with some skin disease. They received the substance, and on administering found that while it failed to exhibit the expected effect, it promptly reduced the existing fever. When the supply of naphthalene was almost exhausted, they wrote for a further quantity; but, to their great astonishment, the second supply, unlike the first, did not manifest any antipyretic action, and on comparing the two, they soon discovered that a mistake had occurred somewhere. An investigation showed that when the first request was received the laboratory boy was directed by the chemist to fill a bottle with naphthalene and mail it to his friends, but through an error some acetanilid was sent instead, while the second time the chemist himself filled the bottle correctly. Thus, through an accident, acetanilid was introduced into medicine, a remedy which to-day is used by the ton as an antipyretic and antineuralgic, and through the irony of fate the most powerful competitor of antipyrine was discovered as the result of a mistake made in the very factory which was realizing enormous profits from the production of antipyrine.

#### REMEDIES DISCOVERED.

When it was recognized that the acetylation of an amine produced a body of so much value, this process was tried with many amines and other suitable substances, and in consequence such important remedies as phenacetin were obtained, while by substituting lactic acid for acetic acid, lactophenine was prepared, and by means of amidoacetic acid a drug named phenocoll.

After chemical researches had shown that the active principles of vegetable purgatives, such as rhubarb, senna, cascara sagrada, and aloes, were anthraquinone derivatives, synthetic preparations of this class, which therefore are closely related to the alizarine colors, are now brought into the market. These new remedies have the advantage over the crude drugs of greater uniformity of action and exactness in the dosage.

The active principle of the suprarenal gland first isolated and investigated by an American scientist, a substance of surprisingly simple chemical constitution, has been obtained from coal tar, and it is said that this synthetic product is now marketed and from experiments carried out in Europe and in the large works of Parke, Davis & Co., in this country, we may expect that derivatives of this body will soon appear which will be even superior in their pharmacological effect to nature's product.

About the time that the first synthetics were brought out a very curious chemical was discovered also by American ingenuity, which is to-day not only used for medicinal, but also on a large scale for industrial purposes. I refer to saccharin, a substance derived from coal tar, which is five hundred and fifty times sweeter than sugar, and is the first representative of the class of artificial sweeteners. It may be of interest to relate an instance showing how purely theoretical investigations may lead to the building up of an important industry.

Dr. Fahlberg, working under the direction of Professor Ira Remsen in Johns Hopkins, was experimenting with coal tar derivatives from a purely scientific point of view. Before leaving the laboratory one evening he thoroughly washed his hands, and was under the impression that he had taken every pains in doing so. He was therefore greatly surprised on finding that, during his meal, when carrying bread to his mouth, the hands had a sweet taste. He suspected that his landlady had unintentionally sweetened the bread and called her to account. They had a little discussion, from which she emerged the victor. It was not the bread that tasted sweet, but his hands, and, much to his surprise, he noted that not only his hands but his arms had a sweet taste. The only explanation that he could think of was that, notwithstanding the thorough washing, he had brought some chemical along from the laboratory. Rushing back to it and carefully investigating the taste of all the goblets, glasses, and dishes standing on the working table, he finally came across one whose contents seemed to possess a remarkably sweet taste. *Thus was made this remarkable discovery.* What remained to be done was accomplished by later researches with this substance. He found very soon that saccharin, as the product was named, when diluted assumed the taste of cane sugar. In water solution, for instance, its taste was as pleasant as sugar water. The product seemed to be worthy of utilization, provided its other properties were not objectionable.

Physiological experiments were now made on animals, and then on human beings, which showed that it was eliminated undecomposed, and that therefore the human organism behaved indifferently toward the substance. Furthermore, as no perceptible disturbance of the general condition could be observed, it could be assumed that saccharin had no deleterious influence whatsoever upon the general health.

#### NEW FIELDS OPENED.

With the introduction of this artificial sweetener a new industrial field was opened up, and the significance of this discovery can be easily imagined when you consider that four pounds of this material are equivalent in sweetening power to one ton of cane or beet sugar. It was soon manufactured on such a large scale that it seriously threatened the beet sugar industry of the

continent, and as the latter was of much more economic importance than the production of saccharin, laws were enacted which prohibited the industrial use of the sweetener as a substitute for sugar, permitting its employment solely for medicinal purposes, the German Government even going so far as to make a sort of State monopoly of the manufacture of this material.

Still another industry has undergone vast changes through Perkin's discoveries, and since the beginning of the coal tar epoch — the manufacture of artificial perfumes. Nitrobenzol, under the name of mirbaneoil, was in the market as an artificial oil of bitter almonds even before Perkin's mauve. It was used to some extent for scenting soaps. To-day a great variety of synthetic perfumes are manufactured. The odor of musk is successfully imitated by a nitrated hydrocarbon derived from coal tar; the odor of violets, of roses, of jasmine, of heliotrope, is reproduced artificially by synthetic substances, and the favorite American flavor, the oil of wintergreen, is manufactured from coal tar. And in this art also the hand of the master is seen in what is called the Perkin Reaction, through which he first succeeded in preparing from coal tar, coumarin and cinnamic acid.

The singular correlation of all those coal tar products appears from the fact that the odoriferous principle of jasmine is derived from the same mother substance which furnishes synthetic indigo, namely, anthranilic acid.

Between the products giving the sweet odors of flowers and the death dealing explosives there would seem to be a broad chasm, but not for the synthetic coal tar chemist. In fact, the same nitrobenzol which was the first artificial perfume is used to-day with nitroglycerin as a safety explosive. The latter has the disadvantage of congealing when exposed to the cold and then becoming highly dangerous; the admixture of nitrobenzol keeps it liquid at very much lower temperature. Trinitrobenzol and its homologues, especially trinitrocarboic acid, or picric acid, are to-day employed as safety explosives by the miner and in proper mixtures as smokeless powder by the armies of the civilized world.

While coal tar preparations thus destroy life, so they likewise sustain life, for by the use of salicylic and benzoic acids, both products of nature, but now derived chiefly from this source, it becomes possible to preserve the canned foods so indispensable to the soldier, sailor, and explorer.

#### USES OF COAL TAR COLORS.

In conclusion, mention must be made of the use of coal tar colors and preparations in the reproductive arts, in which they play a most important part. Inks for printing and writing are made with coal tar colors, and in photography coal tar preparations are now used almost exclusively for the development of the latent picture on films, plates and paper. By the addition of certain coal tar colors to the photographic emulsion the latter

becomes extremely sensitive to light and can then be used for instantaneous exposures, as in snapshots, and thus Kodak fiends are the direct offshoots of the coal tar industry. By means of coal tar colors even one of the greatest of all problems, photography in natural colors, has been realized.

Curious to relate, with all these successes to its credit, the problem which has occupied the attention of master minds now for almost a century, and which was the incentive of Perkin's research, so fruitful in other fields, the artificial production of quinine, remains unsolved up to the present day.

While thus new arts were constantly developed, the chemical industries, existing at the time of Perkin's discovery, were also eminently benefited. The production of aniline required at once large quantities of sulfuric and nitric acids for the nitration of benzole, and the demand of the new industry for highly concentrated sulfuric acid gave to the world the contact process in which the sulfuric acid gas, formed, for example, in roasting zinc and iron pyrites, which heretofore was allowed to escape and then vitiated the atmosphere and destroyed vegetation, is converted into sulfuric acid by the oxygen of the air. The manufacture of alizarin consumed enormous quantities of caustic soda. Bromin and iodine became staple articles of commerce. The electrolysis of salt solution was economically perfected, and together with the contact process and the liquefaction of chlorine is employed on an immense scale for the synthesis of indigo. The experience gained in electric methods is being applied to the problem of utilizing the nitrogen of the air, and to judge from past successes it will not be many years before the Badische Anilin and Soda Fabrik, in whose laboratories experiments in this direction are being conducted, will bring in the market nitrates, nitrites and nitric acid made from atmospheric nitrogen, instead of Chile saltpeter the supply of which is calculated to last no longer than about twenty years. And as Chile saltpeter is indispensable in agriculture, especially in the raising of cereals, its artificial production in the manner indicated will remove the anxiety expressed by writers on economics concerning the difficulty of feeding an ever increasing population owing to the gradual exhaustion of the soil.

The distillation of coal tar itself was changed in every respect to comply with the new development. All its by-products are utilized, and one of them, sulfate of ammonia, is produced so economically that it is commonly employed as a fertilizer.

The coal tar industry gave us our modern chemical institutes, the wonderful equipments of which were first utilized in the laboratories of the factories, and above all it gave us the intimate coöperation of technics and science which is in fact at the root of all this magnificent success.

The world cannot spare such an extraordinary man. May his life be spared to us for many years to come and may it be replete with health and happiness.



Sir William H. Perkin also spoke, and after thanking all for the generous welcome, the presentations, the tributes paid to him, and apologizing for repeating the remarks made in London, said :

As long as I can remember, the kind of pursuit I should follow during my life was a subject that occupied my thoughts very much. My father being a builder, the first idea was that I should follow in his footsteps, and I used to watch the carpenters at work and also tried my hand at carpentering myself. Other things I noticed led me to take an interest in mechanics and engineering, and I used to pore over an old book called the "Artisan," which referred to these subjects and also described some of the steam engines then in use, and I tried to make an engine myself and got as far as making the patterns for casting, but I was unable to go any further for want of appliances. I had always been fond of drawing and sometimes copied plans for my father, whose ambition was that I might be an architect. This led me on to painting and made me think I should like to be an artist, and I worked away at oil painting for some time. All these subjects I pursued earnestly and not as amusements, and the information I obtained though very elementary was of much value to me afterward, but when I was between twelve and thirteen years of age a young friend showed me some chemical experiments, and the wonderful power of substances to crystallize in definite forms, and the latter especially struck me very much, with the result that I saw there was in chemistry something far beyond the other pursuits with which I had previously been occupied. The possibility also of making new discoveries impressed me very much. My choice was fixed, and I determined if possible to become a chemist, and I immediately commenced to accumulate bottles of chemicals and make experiments. About this time I changed my school and was sent to the City of London School, and to my delight found that lectures on chemistry and natural philosophy were given there twice a week during the dinner interval. These I attended, and not long afterward the lecturer, seeing the great interest I took in the science, made me one of his lecture assistants, my duties being to prepare the experiments, arrange the table and assist at the lectures. This was a great lift to me, and I daily used most of the interval for dinner, and not unfrequently all, but the abstinence from food this caused did me no harm, as nearly all of us eat too much. This interval was the only time I had for fitting up apparatus and preparing for these lectures. The lecturer was Mr. Thomas Hall, B.A., one of the class masters, and he was very kind to me and helped me in every way. My father was disappointed at my choice, and the outlook for chemists was indeed very poor in those days, and naturally that was a matter that weighed with my father, but Mr. Hall had several interviews with him and eventually I was allowed to follow my bent, and at the age of

fifteen I left school and entered the Royal College of Chemistry in London, where Dr. Hofmann was professor.

#### PRELIMINARY WORK.

I discovered "mauve dye" during the Easter vacation of 1856. I showed this dye to some of my chemical friends, who thought it might be valuable, but its evident costliness and the difficulties of preparing aniline for its production on a large scale made the probability of its proving of practical value very doubtful. At this time aniline was a very rare product, only found in a few research laboratories, and could not be purchased. Having obtained an introduction to Messrs. Pullar, of Perth, the well-known dyers, some pieces of dyed silk were sent to them, and they reported: "*If* your discovery does not make the goods too expensive it is decidedly the most valuable that has come out for a long time." This report was very satisfactory except the "*If*" it commenced with. During the summer vacation, and with the help of my brother, Mr. T. D. Perkin, larger experiments were made, and consequently large quantities of coloring matter obtained, and it was then decided to patent the process, but a difficulty arose. I was but eighteen years of age, and it was questionable whether a patent could be granted to any one under twenty-one—(a minor). Counsel's opinion had therefore to be obtained, and this was to the effect that a patent being a gift from the Crown, the matter of age did not affect the grant. Further experiments were then made on dyeing and calico printing, and although the colors were admired, that terrible *if* respecting the cost was always brought forward, besides other questions. Nevertheless, I became persuaded in my own mind of the importance of the dye, and, as a consequence, I gave up my position as assistant to Dr. Hofmann that I might follow up the subject, but at this he was annoyed, probably thinking I was taking a false step. I was also much afraid that by entering into this technical pursuit my research work might be prevented, but I determined that so far as in me lay this should not be the case.

#### COMMENCES NEW INDUSTRY.

But the difficulty in starting this new industry was that no one was willing to come forward with the requisite capital, because they were not ready to risk it on such a new and untried product as this dye. My father, however, although he had been disappointed at my becoming a chemist instead of an architect, nevertheless had so much confidence in my judgment that he very nobly risked most of the capital he had accumulated by a life of great industry by building and starting works for the production of this mauve dye. Had it not been for this generosity on his part, for which I have always felt very grateful, probably I should not have been able to start this industry. My

father and brother joined me in this undertaking, and I feel that my success was largely due to their collaboration. Time would fail me to enter into all the difficulties that beset the establishment of this "unique" industry, not only in having to invent suitable plant, but also to obtain even the raw material which was not then made of a definite quality. The processes were quite different in character from those in existing chemical industries. The coloring matter also when made was quite different from ordinary dyes in its properties, and methods for its application as a dye had to be discovered and this consumed much time. In fact, it was all pioneering work. Nevertheless, the mauve was supplied for silk dyeing as early as December, 1857.

I have mentioned these particulars because the production of this new color and the practical proof of the possibility of manufacturing it commercially was the foundation of the coal tar color industry. When the mauve was seen to be a success, of course every one commenced experimenting with aniline, and three years after its discovery magenta was discovered by M. Verguin in France. None of the difficulties I have mentioned were encountered in the manufacture of this dye; the way was clear and all the processes for the application of the mauve were equally suitable for the magenta, and, moreover, none of the first prejudices in reference to such an innovation as the mauve any longer existed.

Other coloring matters were then discovered by myself, and in France by Messrs. Girard and Delaine and then by Dr. Hofmann, in England, many of which were derivatives of magenta. These were produced not only in France, but largely in England by Messrs. Simpson, Maule, and Nicholson; they were also made to some extent in Germany and Switzerland, and very soon dyes of all the colors of the rainbow were obtained from commercial aniline and the industry made very rapid progress.

In 1868 Graebe and Liebermann commenced an investigation on alizarine, the natural coloring matter of the madder root, from a purely scientific point of view; this led to the remarkable discovery that this coloring matter is related to a coal tar product called anthracene, and they also succeeded in producing it from this product. This was the first natural coloring matter which had been produced artificially. Their process, however, was not suitable for the production of this coloring matter technically. Having in my research work studied anthracene and some of its products, I endeavored to find a practical process for the formation of alizarine, and after a time succeeded in finding two suitable methods for its production on the large scale. Caro, Graebe, and Liebermann quite independently also discovered one of them. I and my brother then took up its production at our works (my father having died previously), but many difficulties were encountered, one being that of obtaining anthracene, which

was not then a commercial product, but after visiting most of the tar works in England and instructing the tar distillers and agreeing to take what they could make, a supply was soon obtained in all different states of purity, which quickly increased. In the meantime the difficulties of the manufacture were overcome, and we were soon able to commence supplying alizarine to the Turkey red dyers. Our output rapidly increased, and this artificial coloring matter has now become one of the most important of the coal tar colors and has superseded the natural dye, so that the cultivation of the madder root has practically ceased. In the year 1873 the demand for alizarine had so increased that we felt that it would be necessary to enlarge our works two or three times to meet the demand. My brother and I, however, did not care to undertake this great responsibility. We, therefore, sold our works, hoping our successors would follow up the matter.

This ended my connection with the color industry from a manufacturing point of view. After this I occupied myself with scientific research.

#### ARTIFICIAL INDIGO PRODUCED.

One of the most remarkable developments of the industry has been the artificial production of indigo, and curiously the first process for its manufacture discovered by Professor Baeyer was dependent upon its success on the method of producing cinnamic acid, discovered in my purely scientific investigations, and this dye is now manufactured so cheaply that the cultivation of the indigo plant has been discontinued in many parts of India.

This important industry has also had a marvelous influence on the development of science itself. Its wonderful growth has also, as a matter of course, created not only directly, but indirectly an immense amount of employment for men of all classes, especially the working classes, which cannot be gauged, and although America has not become a manufacturing center for the production of these dyes, no doubt many thousands of American workers are engaged in the applications. That this industry which I was permitted to found should have led to this result is a source of pleasure to me, because the final result of our work should be the benefit of mankind.

You have been so good as to honor me by having this jubilee in remembrance of the part I have taken in connection with this coal tar color industry, and whilst I am thankful that I had to do with its foundation and early development, yet I feel that the part I have taken is indeed small when compared with the labors of the army of scientific men and others both inside and outside the color works, who have advanced it to its present condition. At the same time it is very gratifying to me to receive all the generous and kindly expression of feeling you are manifesting,



and I thank you very heartily. But what have I that I have not received? It is not therefore for me to boast (and I feel that I have but imperfectly used my opportunities). I therefore can only say in reference to the successes which have attended my efforts: "Not unto me, O Lord, not unto me, but unto Thy great Name be all the praise."

#### THE BOSTON DINNER.

At the Boston dinner, Professor H. P. Talbot, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, presided. In welcoming the guest to the Commonwealth Governor Curtis Guild, Jr., said :

If he is a benefactor who makes two blades of grass grow where only one grew before, what shall we say of him who transformed the blackness of the coal mines into the rainbow of the heavens? It is with peculiar interest that Massachusetts views any invention and any progress in dyes, drugs or tanning materials. We are met as two great nations to celebrate one of the great victories of peace—one of the discoveries of advantage not to one, but to all the nations. Therefore I, not as an American to an Englishman but as man speaking to man—to the benefactor of all humanity—extend to you, Sir William Henry Perkin, the greetings of Massachusetts, a not unworthy sister among the progressive Commonwealths of America.

Mr. William Whitman, President of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, was one of the speakers. He said :

I feel deeply the honor of your committee's invitation to say a few words to you at this time on behalf of the manufacturers of this Commonwealth, those who represent commercial interests, those who consume the products of that great industry which owes its marvelous growth to the life work of our distinguished guest. I shall be brief.

You know Sir William's contribution to society, and you are aware of his reward. The manufacturers of the world, and we of this Commonwealth, owe him a debt which time cannot outlaw. The nations pay him tribute. There is no discordant note in the universal psalm of praise that must sound so pleasantly to his ears, the love and gratitude of his fellow men.

The spirit of genius that inspired our distinguished guest in his work is the attendant spirit of our print works, our dye-houses, our chemical works, all kindred industries, and also of our seats of learning, with their extensive laboratories of research. It is the spirit of development that will watch over the progress of his great work, the spirit that has led man to adapt his new ideas to the physical resources of life for his comfort and his general welfare.

In studying this spirit I have turned to Sir William's writings. Certain brief expressions linger in my mind, and they furnish a theme. In commenting on the industry which he originated, he says :

There is one feature connected with this industry and its great development which is of interest, and that is the immense amount of employment it has created for men of all classes, and of course especially for the working classes. When one considers its ramifications and its influence on other industries, it is difficult to gauge this, but it is often a very pleasant thought to me. . . .

In another instance he says of himself and his associates :

The net result of our work should be the benefit of mankind.

And again he says, with reference to the coal tar color industry :

The origin and foundation was the outcome of scientific research, and also its development has been due to research ; hence its unique character and marvelous growth, the fruit of the union of science and industry. When I was young it was thought quite *infra dig.* for a scientific man to associate himself with industry. The possibility of becoming a manufacturer, owing to the discovery of Mauve, made me feel this very much. . . . The union of science and industry has had most beneficial results, because they have been hand-maids to each other in the most remarkable way, chemical science having made progress it never would have made without the aid of this industry.

Much of the man is revealed in these words. They abound with philanthropy and a noble purpose, but as I read them I forget the man and become filled with the ideas which his words suggest.

We note that the wonderful growth of that industry, which its originator has said should have as its net result the benefit of mankind, was due to the union of science and industry — scientific research with its discoveries and development of new ideas, and industry with its application of those ideas to material things for the benefit of mankind. And then we note that the man who tells us these things was disturbed in his youth by the opinion prevalent in England that it was quite beneath a scientific man's dignity to be associated with industry.

It is here, gentlemen, that I find my theme, for there is borne to our ears to-day a cry against "commercialism," against commercial men, the men governing great industries which have, in my opinion, as their net result the benefit of mankind. The cry is like an echo of that similar cry in England that disturbed our distinguished guest.

Our scientific men, our men of learning, our preachers, and many other educated and intellectual men have expressed their fear of what they believe to be a great danger of modern times. This danger they have been pleased to call "commercialism." Recent unhappy revelations have increased their laments until the word "commercialism" is used as a term of reproach and as tainting or corrupting the body politic.

Throughout history those men who may be associated in our minds with the word "science" have won greater regard than those engaged in industry, whatever their relative contribution to the world's advance. Ought this to be so? Is there any good reason for supposing that the development of a new idea, for example, is a greater contribution to the world's progress than the application of that idea to the material comforts of man, so that it will inure to the benefit of a whole community? Is the inventor a greater benefactor than the man who places the resultant benefits of the invention at the disposal of the many? It is, of course, impossible to answer these questions; the human mind cannot measure a man's contribution to the common good. Yet certainly each should receive his share of the world's regard. There should be no prejudice created in the popular mind against the men of commerce.

At this point it may be well to ask, What is commercialism? What is the spirit of commercialism which is so criticised to-day? If we turn to the books, we find the word "commercialism" tersely defined as "the commercial spirit or method;" "the methods and strict business principles of men engaged in commerce," or in other words, engaged in the interchange of the commodities of the world.

The spirit of commercialism is a noble spirit, which finds its true expression in those simple words, "Do unto others as you would be done by." The teachings of business men throughout the world have been based upon fairness and honesty. The *great* work of the business world has been, and always will be, done upon honor and integrity. The universal teaching of all nations leads men to condemn those who are not honest and fair in their dealings with their fellow men. The true spirit of commercialism should ennoble, and not degrade, and those men who are called "commercial," who adapt new ideas to physical things for the material comfort of mankind, are performing a noble office — as noble, I believe, as those more learned and scholarly men who create these new ideas. An invention by itself may do little good, but the application of that invention to increase the resources and facilities of man may change a whole nation. In an address on the "Commercial Value of Ideas and Physical Facts" by the late Chauncey Smith, I find these words:

And though men engage in commerce for gain, and not as a benevolent employment, yet any commercial man who cherishes an honorable pride, as he should, in the dignity of

his profession, and in what it does for the world, may felicitate himself upon the undoubted fact that commerce, in ministering to the wants of men in the darkest parts of the earth and stimulating their desires for what civilization can furnish, is doing more for their advancement than all the benevolent and missionary enterprises of the age.

I should be happier in quoting this if the last lines read, "is doing perhaps as much for their advancement as the benevolent and missionary enterprises." We cannot say that they are doing more. The commercial man and theorist each has its place, each performs his work, and the two, by their combined efforts, benefit the world. No prejudice should belittle the contribution of either one. The idea that commercial men are actuated more than others by selfish motives is an erroneous one. It is human nature for every individual to toil for his own interest. Without the stimulant of self-advance there would be no progress. The man of science, the man of learning, and the man of commerce all seek an advance, but they seek their reward in different forms.

To-night we have as our guest a man whose point of view it will be well for all to adopt, a man of theory and of practice, a man who realizes that the benefit of his life work has been the fruit of the "union of science and industry," and who undoubtedly believes that the man of commerce and of industrial affairs is entitled to full credit for the part he has played in the development of a great work.

In closing, I may say that if I doubted for a moment the true spirit of commercialism, I should struggle with that doubt and try to believe that honesty is the best policy, and that fair dealing is the basis of all our commerce.

When Mr. Garfield was nearing his death, at his request he was placed where he could gaze quietly out over the ocean. In writing of him, our great statesman, Mr. James G. Blaine, concludes with this wonderful thought:

Let us believe that in the silence of the receding world he heard the great waves breaking on a farther shore, and felt already upon his wasted brow the breath of the eternal morning.

What a world of happiness is expressed in the few words, "Let us believe." And I, at this point, find myself happy in saying to all commercial men, let us believe that the true spirit of commercialism is based upon honesty and fair dealing and the ancient tradition that we should do unto others as we would be done by; and that that spirit is a noble spirit which should be spoken of with reverence and not with scorn.

Others who spoke were United States Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, Captain W. Wyndham, the British Consul at Boston,



President Henry S. Pritchett of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Comptroller H. A. Metz, of New York. Dr. William A. Walker presented to Sir William a splendid silver punch bowl bearing this inscription :

Presented to  
SIR WILLIAM HENRY PERKIN  
By the Coal Tar Color and Chemical Industries  
of New England  
In commemoration of his visit to Boston  
on Oct. 10, 1906,  
And in recognition of his distinguished services  
to pure and applied chemistry.

In responding the recipient expressed his warm appreciation of the gift as well as the welcome he had received in the United States. Referring to his discovery he said the silk dyers were the first to use it, and they were followed by the cotton dyers. By the artificial production of alazarine and indigo, which had been obtainable previously only from the vegetable kingdom, millions of acres of land have been made available for the growing of food products. At present there are few colors that cannot be produced from coal tar. Eventually, he predicted, all will be so produced. Logwood has not yet been obtained, but will be before long. All is known about its constitution and it is only a matter of time when it will be supplanted as the other vegetable dyestuffs have been.

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#### FALSE PACKING OF WOOL.

At the annual meeting of the National Wool Growers' Association, held in Portland, Ore., February, 1904, Mr. Charles H. Harding, of Philadelphia, then president of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, delivered an excellent address on "Matters of Mutual Interest to Wool Growers and Wool Manufacturers," in the course of which he took occasion to refer to the various things he had found packed, in years past, in the wool he had purchased. These embraced stones, shoes, pieces of old harness, shears, and cow-bells, — so many extraneous things that he concluded in some places the rule must hold to pack not

only the sheep's whole wardrobe but some of his surroundings. Happily such "finds" are not general and conditions are not becoming worse, but better in this respect. The complaint is not confined, however, to this country, to this century, or to wool alone.

In New Zealand during recent years a good deal of complaint has been heard respecting the false packing of wool; and so serious did the practice threaten to prove to the wool industry of the islands that the local press and the Wool Buyers' Association of New Zealand have adopted drastic measures to stamp it out completely. The "Canterbury Times" put the case thus :

During the past few years many complaints have been made of the false packing of wool purchased at the auction sales in New Zealand and the nefarious practice is becoming a very serious menace to one of the colony's most important industries. This false packing has been carried on in a most systematic manner, not only by rolling inferior wool, and even dirt, inside the individual fleeces, but also by placing inferior fleeces in the center of the bale. Unscrupulous farmers and dealers have presumed upon the difficulty of detecting the fraud. The high pressure at which buyers work during the wool season often prevents them making anything more than a superficial examination of a few bales in each lot, and the fraudulent fleeces are, of course, placed in the heart of the bale where they may easily escape such an examination. The offenders know, too, that most of the wool which is bought here is not again seen by the buyer, and may pass through several hands before it reaches the ultimate consumer. Experience, however, has taught the buyers to be more careful than formerly in their examination of wools, both before and after purchase, and last season a very flagrant case was detected, an investigation showing that the wool in the center of the bales was much inferior to that at the top and bottom, which had been exposed to the view of the buyers. The New Zealand Wool Buyers' Association determined to prosecute the vendor, but when he was brought face to face with the facts he denied all knowledge of the fraud, took back the wool and placed a substantial sum of money in the hands of the Association to defray the costs incurred in the proceedings, and to provide for restitution in case of any other wools offered on his account turning out in the same condition. The case has been made public as a warning, and the Association has resolved that in future any case that may come under its notice will be treated with the utmost severity. Under the "conditions of sale" which govern the wool sales throughout the colony, buyers have power to demand from the auctioneers the name of the owner of any lot, and in the event of false packing being discovered the seller is liable to imprisonment for

obtaining money under false pretences. It is deplorable that the reputation of the New Zealand wool sales and of New Zealand wool growers should be imperilled by the practices of a few dishonest people, and we trust the Association will make an example of the very first offender that falls into their hands.

The Wool Buyers' Association has issued a circular on the subject in which they announce their determination to prevent this malpractice in the future. Falsely packed wool offered for sale will be purchased by the buyers collectively and the vendor or vendors prosecuted criminally. It is stated that the vendor referred to by the "Times" had to accept the rejection of all wool not actually shipped, and disclose all lots offered by him in previous sales, guaranteeing to indemnify buyers against loss should further lots be discovered to be falsely packed, for which purpose £2 per bale were deposited with trustees to meet legitimate claims. The circular concludes by stating that it was thought "desirable to bring these facts before the wool-selling community to show that buyers are fully alive to the nefarious practice of unscrupulous dealers and farmers, and they (the buyers) hope that all sheep farmers will assist them in their efforts to eliminate fraudulent packing from New Zealand wools, and thus restore the confidence of buyers in New Zealand Wool Sales."

But this complaint is an old story. Human nature has not changed much, in some respects, during the lapse of several centuries. Before New Zealand and Australia were thought of as wool-producing countries the English manufacturer was having similar troubles with his home-grown wools and was fruitlessly endeavoring to make the domestic wool grower good by legislation, while in this country purchasers of foreign-grown cotton were being imposed upon by unscrupulous growers and packers. Weeden in his "Economic History of New England" says :

False packed cotton troubled merchants in early times. In 1672 John Hull gets two bags of vine cotton wool from the West Indies. He trades them into the country for provisions. The customer finds "much fowle cotton" in the middle of one bag, and Hull is obliged to make reclamation of his correspondent.

In 1752 petitions were presented to the House of Commons from manufacturing districts praying for the interference of the Legislature to prevent the branding of sheep with pitch and tar, and to prevent the false and deceitful winding of the fleece.

The complaint was that the owners of the sheep, who had been accustomed to mark the sheep feeding on common grounds in some conspicuous part, had, in recent years, loaded the fleeces of those feeding in inclosed grounds as well as on the commons with excessive quantities of marking stuff in order to increase their weight. Because of this heavy marking the manufacturers were obliged to cut off so much wool that considerable losses were experienced, "whereby the employment of the poor, and the quantity of goods for exportation are much lessened." In addition it was complained that, notwithstanding the greatest attention of most careful manufacturers, the marking stuff was wrought up into goods, and it was impossible to discover the imperfections before the pieces came from the press ready for sale.

The fraudulent winding of wool, a crime of ancient date, was provided against by a statute passed in the reign of Henry VIII., which enacted "that no person should wind within any fleece, clay, lead, stones, tail, deceitful locks, cotts, eals, comber, lambs' wool, or any other thing whereby the fleece might be more weighty, to the deceit and loss of the buyer, upon pain of the seller of any such deceitful wool to forfeit for every such fleece sixpence."

But this bit of legislation failed to secure for the manufacturers immunity from such imposition by the sellers of wool, and it was alleged in this petition that notwithstanding the salutary law, "the crime has been growing upon us and now in almost every part of the kingdom the wool growers, in order to increase the weight and enhance the price of wool, permit to be wound up in the fleeces wool of inferior qualities as tail wool, shank locks, clog locks, unwashed wool, skin-wool, lambs' wool, cotted wool, and also clay, stones, dung, sand, and other filth, to the inconceivable loss and deceit of the manufacturers, several of whom have found in many parcels of wool a total loss of one-fifteenth of the weight they bought and paid for, occasioned wholly by the large brands or marks thereon, and the deceitful winding complained of; and in truth they now find very few parcels of wool fairly wound, and free from brand."

The petitioners asked, to suppress this nefarious practice, for the passage of a law requiring all growers to clip off before shearing the sheep or winding their wool all brands and dirt; forbidding them to wind within the fleece any clay, dirt, etc., to add weight to it; making liable to a penalty every one selling or



exposing for sale any such wool forbidden by the act, and licensing wool-winders and compelling them to be sworn to wind according to the act.

Commercial ethics have materially improved, we believe, since the struggle in England by the manufacturer for better conditions and we trust that the wool trade of New Zealand will be able to eradicate the reprehensible practice before it becomes a general and widely established custom.

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### “CHEAP” ENGLISH FABRICS.

THOSE persons in this country who are constantly contending for reduction in duties that cheaper clothing for the people may result would perhaps be the first to cry out against the impositions practised on unsuspecting customers were such reductions made as they demand. During the continuance of the Wilson tariff the competition was keenest in the cheapest class of goods, and they were cheap in more senses than one. Quality for quality that measure brought practically no benefits to the consumer in the United States. What he saved in cost, if anything at all, was lost in the poorer quality of the purchase. At that time the foreign manufacturers knew methods of admixture, the combination of inferior materials, and processes of finishing of which the American manufacturer was innocent. Probably at no time in the history of our country was so much of these “cheap” fabrics afloat in our markets. That English manufacturers have not forgotten this knowledge, but have added to their store, because of the high price of wool and their desire to produce at accustomed prices, is evidenced by the subjoined extracts from a recent communication by the Bradford correspondent of the “Textile Manufacturers Journal.” Referring to the expedients resorted to by the English manufacturers to produce cloths at the customary and familiar price, the writer says:

Dear wool has been a mighty lever in bringing out and into use wool materials which have lain in corners in some cases for years, but they have at last found their way into the manufactured article, and been worked up to substitute something that looked dear. Even such things as wool shoddy and burrs, that is, the last refuse from woolcombing, has gladly been bought and used for cloth-making purposes, which in ordinary times would have

had to be extracted for flannels, while noils have been availed of for almost everything where raw wool has usually been used. . . .

There is no mistaking the fact that when wool fabrics get beyond the range of the million, or what wholesale buyers consider "too dear," then they stop buying and consumption is reduced. Beyond given limits, consumption goes down as prices rise. Now, in order to keep wholesale clothiers, woollen merchants and shipping houses on good terms, manufacturers of every textile commodity have striven their very best to keep prices within reasonable limits as wool has continued to advance. . . . During the last wool boom in 1899 manufacturers thought nothing about advancing their cloths 3d. per yard straight off, until it got to be almost a weekly custom for both spinners and manufacturers to send out a revised price list. Such a thing has hardly been known during the present season of rising values, and plenty of cloths of a standard order have not been advanced more than 1d. to 3d. per yard during the past twelve months. . . .

It has been well said that necessity is the mother of invention, and so it is. Perhaps no feature shines out more in connection with the wool situation than this one, namely, that manufacturers have resorted to substitution more than ever they did, and "blending" and "mixing" have been practised on a very large scale indeed. Take a case in point. If the reader of this article will carefully examine the inside of his coat he will find that instead of the linings being of wool or worsted, as they used to be, they are nothing more than glazed cotton, or, to be more correct, they will present the appearance of silk, when really they are made from mercerized cotton. Of course, I am now speaking of a coat made this last year or two, and the use of these silk-like linings has given both tailors and dressmakers a fabric which serves the purpose admirably, though they have displaced largely the use of thin worsted linings. Being not half the price, they are enabling the wholesale clothier to put upon the market suits at practically the same figure as he did before wool got to be so dear. A very large and important trade is being done to-day with the United States in cotton linings from 6d. per yard upward, and they shine like silk.

If we come to look at the dress trade, cotton warps are being more used than ever they were. I should say that nearly 50 per cent of the ladies' dress goods being woven to-day on Bradford looms have a cotton warp as the foundation of the fabric, the same being "filled," as Yankees call it, with worsted weft. . . .

But the woollen trade is the climax where "mixing" is carried on to perfection. The rise in wool has pinched the woollen people perhaps more than anybody else, unless it be those worsted houses who specially make coatings and serges, and these have felt bitterly dear wool. Now manufacturers outside Bradford have felt much more than they did in 1899 the recent

rapid rise in wool values, simply because to-day rags, stockings, and mungos have been correspondingly advanced. We have scores of manufacturers to whom it would not matter a cent if wool got to be half a crown a pound, providing rags and shoddies got no dearer. Now, in 1899 these remained fairly stationary, because they were plentiful. The seven years' droughts in Australia had left no mark upon the rag supplies of either Great Britain or the continent, and stocks were adequate. With wool values rising continuously since the beginning of 1902, manufacturers have more and more been forced to depend upon their own resources, and little by little have they resorted to using more and more adulterants in order to produce new cloths at former rates. A man to-day can buy, to all appearance, quite as artistic a tweed from a Huddersfield manufacturer at no more per yard than what he paid in 1900, when wool was at the bottom. It looks quite as well, and will sell fully as well, if not better, than then, but its make-up will not be as sound or as good. Why? Simply because there is more mungo and cotton in its make-up, and it is here that we have the crux of the whole question, why manufacturers are making such splendid things at such little prices.

In the making of such fabrics the manufacturers of the United States are no match for their confrères across the ocean; for as an English writer, in a recent number of "Dalgety's Review," says: "America, so far, has not been sufficiently schooled, as have their Yorkshire competitors, to know how to make cloth out of the inferior materials which seem to monopolize the woollen trade of the West Riding." And it is against competition in the making of such goods where the conditions are so unequal that both the manufacturers and the consuming public of the country should be protected.

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## TEXTILE SCHOOLS.

### PHILADELPHIA.

THE Philadelphia Textile School commenced its twenty-third season on October 1 under most favorable conditions. The past summer months were devoted to general refitting and repairing throughout the various departments, rather than to the acquisition of any great additions to its already large equipment, the policy of the board of trustees being to bend every energy toward the ideal equipment of the new buildings which they

propose to erect on the large site recently purchased. The new lot, situated on North Broad street, is one-third larger than the present one, and being centrally located as to the manufacturing districts will admit of the erection of buildings sufficient to accommodate not only those who are now turned away, but also many more who are deterred from availing themselves of the school's advantages owing to its distance from their homes.

Among the notable additions is that of two heavy Knowles looms, one having forty-eight-inch and one forty-inch reed space, thirty and twenty harness capacity respectively, and fitted with box multipliers. One of the roving frames in the cotton department has been equipped with metallic drawing rolls, and one of the worsted spinning frames was provided with caps of a new form. The weaving facilities were further augmented by the addition of a handkerchief motion to the Stafford loom. The department of chemistry made additions to its supply of color meters and polariscopes, and the efficiency of the dyehouse was increased by a new drying oven, arranged in compartments, individually heated, so that each class can maintain control of its work.

Some idea of the extent to which this institution couples practical work and research with instruction in the theory of the processes may be gained by a consideration of figures showing the product of yarns and woven goods during the season which closed in June, 1906. In the department of yarn manufacture over twenty-five thousand pounds were produced, of which between five hundred and one thousand pounds were cotton yarns, eight thousand two hundred pounds wool yarns, and sixteen thousand one hundred and seventy-five worsted yarns. In bringing out these yarns many of the students were following the specifications which they had prepared for woven goods, which were afterwards produced to the extent of over two thousand yards in various widths and materials. In the Jacquard work alone over seventy designs were made and about twenty-two thousand cards cut preparatory to the weaving of figured fabrics ranging from the heavy carpet to the delicate silk dress fabric. The degree of excellence attained in the departments of chemistry and dyeing is apparent in the variety of dyeing displayed in the woven goods, as well as in the dyestuffs manufactured.



## LOWELL.

During the summer vacation additions were made to the floor space, the equipment, grounds and instruction staff of the Lowell Textile School.

Twelve thousand square feet of floor space have been added to Kitson Hall, divided up into machine shop; cotton finishing; evening mechanical, architectural and freehand drawing, and students' room — with toilet, shower baths and lockers for the athletic clubs — also store rooms, etc. Twenty-five hundred feet of the basement of Southwick Hall have been partitioned off and fitted up for an industrial chemistry laboratory where instruction in the making of dyes used at the school, from the crude material, will be given.

The installation of a \$12,000 plant for the French or continental system of worsted spinning made by the Société Alsacienne de Constructions Mecaniques of Alsace, Germany, has been completed. This, with a complete plant for the Bradford or English system of worsted spinning, heretofore installed, covers the entire field of worsted yarns. Considerable additions have been made to the equipment of the other departments, notably for knitting varied fabrics.

The department of engineering has been strengthened by the addition to the instruction staff of Herbert J. Ball, S.B., mechanical engineer, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Louis F. Blume, S.B., engineering, electricity, mathematics and physics, Lehigh University, and late with the General Electric Company. Other additional instructors are Robert R. Sleeper, graduate Lowell Textile School, 1900, and late with H. A. Metz & Co., manufacturing chemists, New York; Frederick A. Wood, professor of English, Dartmouth and Columbia, and Henry H. Crompton, expert in French spinning, Lowell Textile School, and late of Arlington Mills, Lawrence.

The school site has this year been increased to eighteen acres, by the gift of three acres by Frederick Fanning Ayer, Esq., of New York city.

The growth of the school has required a thorough overhauling of the system of ventilation of class rooms and laboratories and the installation at the expense of \$6,000 of a system approved by the District Police Bureau.

## METRIC SIGNS.

THE French minister of public instruction has decided that all teachers throughout France are in future to employ the following distinctive abbreviations for the various weights and measures: For denoting length — myriamètre, Mm; kilomètre, Km; hectomètre, Hm; décamètre, dam; mètre, m; décimètre, dm; centimètre, Cm, and millimètre, mm. For areas — hectare, ha; are, a, and centiare, ca or m<sup>2</sup>. For measures of bulk (timber), décastère, das; stère, s or m<sup>3</sup>, and décistère, ds. For measures of mass and weight — tonne, t; quintal métrique, q; kilogramme, kg; hectogramme, hg; décagramme, dag; gramme, g; décigramme, dg; centigramme, cg, and milligramme, mg. For measures of capacity — kilolitre, kl; hectolitre, hl; décalitre, dal; litre, l; décilitre, dl; centilitre, cl, and millilitre, ml. The use of the capital letters for the three largest denominations of length are intended to prevent confusion, and all the other abbreviations follow on uniform lines. The employment of full stops between the letters is officially abolished, and k. g. for kilogramme and m. m. for millimetre disappear.

## CHRONOLOGY OF THE WOOL MANUFACTURE.

## NOVEMBER, 1905.

Adams Woolen Co., Adams, Mass.; new engine house, extensive additions, and new spinning machinery installed.

Scotia Worsted Co., Woonsocket, R.I.; addition, 2 stories, 110 × 40 feet.

Central Woolen Co.'s Mill, Stafford Springs, Conn.; sold to Archibald B. Paton, formerly with the Geo. H. Gilbert Co., Ware, Mass., who will operate it.

Death of Thomas Pilling, president of the Kiamensi Woolen Co., Stanton, Del.; aged 69 years. He was one of the incorporators of the company in 1864.

Thomas Kent Manufacturing Co., Clifton Heights, Pa.; addition, brick building, 2 stories, 40 × 70 feet.

Springville Co., Rockville, Conn.; addition, new boiler house, 66 × 45 feet.

## DECEMBER.

Musketaquid Mills, Lowell, Mass.; removed to the Nesmith building and looms for fancy worsteds and dress goods added.

Assabet Mills, American Woolen Co., Maynard, Mass.; add 3 sets large cards making a total of 98 sets.

A. Roberts & Co., Claremont, N.H.; build new dam which will give 400 additional horse-power.

Pitkins-Holdsworth Worsted Co., Passaic, N.J.; make large additions to plant.

Wright's Health Underwear Co., Pownal, Vt.; mill destroyed by fire; loss, \$150,000.

Englehart Woolen Mills, Guzman, W.Va.; mill destroyed by fire; loss, \$25,000; will rebuild.

Francis Woolen Mills, Oakland, R.I.; incorporated; \$30,000; will operate the G. F. Whipple mill.

Hudson Blanket Co., Hudson, Mass.; mill sold to J. J. Hennessy, treasurer of the Thomas Kelly Co., Boston.

Nonantum Worsted Co., Newton, Mass.; mill damaged by fire; loss, \$15,000.

Death of J. H. Bragdon, of New York, December 23, aged 55 years. He was the editor and publisher of the "Textile Manufacturers Journal." See Bulletin, page 72.

Wood River Mills, Wood River Junction, R.I.; the mill was burned in December, 1898, and not rebuilt; the property has been sold by W. A. Walton.

Death of Samuel Lucas, Poquetanuck, Conn. He was born in England, July 4, 1826, and came to this country when a boy. At 9 years of age went to work in the Yantic Mill and after various changes became connected with the firm of B. Lucas & Co.

#### JANUARY, 1906.

Bigelow Carpet Co., Lowell, Mass.; addition, new building on site of an old mill, 7 stories, 225 × 125 feet.

Reliance Worsted Co., Norwich, Conn.; capital stock increased to \$150,000.

W. W. Windle & Co., Millbury, Mass.; new store house, 1½ stories, 65 × 30 feet.

Death of James M. Follansbee, Worcester, Mass., aged 80 years. He was at one time a well known woolen manufacturer.

Henry H. Merriam, Worcester, Mass.; for 40 years with the Crompton & Knowles Loom Co.; retires from business.

Emerald Worsted Mills, Philadelphia, Pa.; mill sold to Cleveland Worsted Mills of Cleveland, Ohio, who will operate it as their Emerald Department, using the machinery purchased from the Manningham Worsted Co.

Faribault Woolen Mill Co., Faribault, Minn.; incorporated; capital stock, \$100,000; treasurer, F. H. Klemer, succeeds C. H. Klemer & Sons.

Death of William Taylor, Easthampton, Mass., aged 55 years. He was president and manager of the National Felting Co.

Falconer Worsted Mills, Jamestown, N.Y.; buildings and machinery sold to Mr. John Ahlstrom for \$17,450, only a little more than half the appraiser's valuation.

Ravenna Worsted Co., Ravenna, Ohio; new building, 3 stories, 180 × 52 feet.

Allen Rockwell, Rockwell's Mills, N.Y.; machinery sold and mill dismantled. Thayer & McMahon and A. H. Esten, Washington, R.I.; mill buildings destroyed by fire; loss, \$40,000.

H. C. Ball & Co., Manayunk, Pa.; addition, 5 stories, 108 × 44 feet.

St. Mary's Woolen Co., St. Mary's, Ohio; capital stock increased to \$125,000.

Death of David McTaggart, January 13, at Barre, Mass., aged about 63 years. He was a native of Scotland, but came to this country early in life and was engaged in the woolen manufacture until 1892, when he organized the Worcester Warp Compressor Co.

Crawford Woolen Co., Martinsburg, W. Va.; addition to mill 100 feet long, 2 stories high.

Chas. W. Bacon Felt Works, Winchester, Mass.; incorporated; capital stock, \$25,000; Fred Bogue, president; W. S. Lee, treasurer.

- A. Roberts & Co., Claremont, N.H.; new dam under construction, which was expected to largely increase the motive power, swept away by flood.
- Grosvenor Woolen Co., Palmer, Mass.; shoddy mill destroyed by fire; loss, \$20,000; partially insured.
- Burlington Blanket Co., Burlington, Wis.; dye house destroyed by fire; loss, \$8,000; insured.
- Death of William H. Nichols, Pascoag, R.I., January 14, aged 72 years. He was for many years engaged in the wool manufacture under the firm name of Sayles & Nichols.
- Death of George T. Murdock, New Boston, Conn. He was the senior member of the firm of Geo. T. Murdock & Son, and for many years was engaged in the wool manufacture.
- Death of Henry F. Coe, of Boston, aged 70 years. He was formerly connected with the Washington Mills, Lawrence, and the Dudley Hosiery Co., of Newton, Mass.
- A. B. Paton Manufacturing Co., Stafford Springs, Conn.; incorporated; capital stock, \$75,000; will operate the Central Woolen Co.'s plant, recently purchased by Mr. Paton.
- Airedale Mills, Pittsfield, Mass.; incorporated; capital stock, \$200,000; B. G. A. Rosentwist, president; Arthur Merritt, treasurer; will operate the plant of the Helliwell Co.

## FEBRUARY.

- Puritan Mills, American Woolen Co., Plymouth, Mass.; addition to weave shed, making 75,000 feet of floor space, also an addition, 45 X 35 feet, to boiler house.
- Pequea Mills, Wm. Wood & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.; add 20 Crompton & Thayer looms.
- Death of Thomas B. Stinson, of Stinson Bros., Philadelphia, Pa., aged 56 years.
- Talbot Mills, North Billerica, Mass.; addition to office building, to be utilized for office purposes and lunch, library and reading rooms.
- Connecticut Woolen Mills Co., East Willington, Conn.; organized; capital stock, \$50,000; will operate the Daleville Mills.
- Glen Mills, Oakdale, Mass.; property taken by State of Massachusetts through the Metropolitan Water Board and plant closed.
- Allendale Woolen Co., Spencer, Mass.; organized capital stock, \$25,000; will operate the Spencer Woolen Co.'s mill; Allen L. Taft is president.
- Death of James G. Knowles, Newcastle, Del., aged 69 years. For many years he was a prominent woolen manufacturer.
- Happy Hollow Mill, Uxbridge, Mass.; sold to J. B. Farnum & Son, of Providence, R.I.; will be operated in connection with the D. Mowry Lee estate mill, on shoddy and flocks.
- Chase Mills, American Woolen Co., Webster, Mass.; add 50 Crompton & Thayer worsted looms.
- Eugene Woolen Mill, Eugene, Ore.; property sold to Thomas Kay and others, new company organized, capital stock, \$10,000, under name of Eugene Woolen Mill Co.; T. B. Kay, president.
- Bromley Bros. Carpet Co., Philadelphia, Pa.; failed, and in hands of sheriff on execution for damages to an employee; T. Rawlen Adams appointed receiver.
- James Dunlap Carpet Co., Philadelphia, Pa.; damaged by fire in drying room; loss; \$2,000.
- Manchester Mills, Manchester, N.H.; purchased by the Amoskeag Manufacturing Co.
- Rock River Woolen Mills, Janesville, Wis.; incorporated in Illinois; capital stock, \$75,000; will operate the Rock River Woolen Mill.
- Death of James L. Branson, aged 75 years. He invented the Branson



Knitting Machine, and for many years engaged in the manufacture of knitting machinery; he retired from business in 1898.

Lynndon Worsted Co., Jamestown, N.Y.; incorporated; capital stock, \$75,000; will operate the Falconer Worsted Mills.

Narragansett Worsted Co., Providence, R.I.; incorporated; capital stock, \$20,000.

Belleville Woolen Mills, Wickford, R.I.; assigned; Joseph Dews appointed assignee; liabilities about \$165,000.

### MARCH.

Maine Worsted Mills, Skowhegan, Me.; incorporated; capital stock, \$50,000; A. G. Blunt, president, and J. W. Blunt, treasurer.

Jewell Brook Woolen Co., Ludlow, Vt.; incorporated; capital stock, \$100,000; new establishment; will erect new building, 160 × 65 feet, and operate 5 sets of cards.

Wm. Barnett & Son, Albany, N.Y.; addition, concrete building, 3 stories, 250 × 60 feet.

John Williams Manufacturing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.; addition, 4-story brick building for factory and boiler house, 133 × 151 feet.

Black River Woolen Co., Ludlow, Vt.; addition, 2 stories, 140 × 60 feet. Newton & Co., Homer, N.Y.; mill destroyed by fire.

Eclipse Woolen Mill, Louisville, Ky.; buildings sold; will be dismantled and used for other purposes.

Death of Joel S. Webber, Holyoke, Mass., March 1, aged 74 years. He was president of Beebe-Webber Co., director of the Farr Alpaca Company, and connected with other institutions.

George Mabbett & Sons, Plymouth, Mass.; addition, weave shed, 100 × 45 feet.

Andrew Howarth & Sons Co., Rochdale, Mass.; new mill building, 2 stories, 372 × 86 feet, with a 250 horse-power engine; will operate 17 sets of cards, and 104 looms on dress goods.

Death of Frederick S. Farwell, Central Falls, R.I., March 10, aged 63 years. Mr. Farwell was at one time connected with the National and Providence Worsted Mills, of Providence, R.I., but some years ago organized the Farwell Worsted Mills at Central Falls and later became the owner of the Star Woolen Mills at Middleboro, Mass., which he operated in connection with the Central Falls plant.

Farwell Worsted Mills, Central Falls, R.I. James Lister appointed receiver by consent to protect all interests. The latest official statement showed assets, \$919,410 and liabilities, \$875,000, surplus, \$23,827.

Lakeville Woolen Co., West Rutland, Mass.; property sold at mortgagee's sale to J. O. Sibley, of Worcester, for about \$31,000.

Sayles & Jenks, Warren, Mass.; addition, 16 looms to plant.

Franklin Yarn Co., Franklin, Mass.; mill destroyed by fire; loss, \$60,000.

East Brady Woolen Co., East Brady, Pa.; incorporated, capital stock, \$50,000.

French Worsted Co., Woonsocket, R.I.; incorporated, capital stock, \$100,000, by Paul, Charles and Joseph Tiberghien, of Tourcoing, France, and Aram J. Pothier, of Woonsocket.

Gonic Manufacturing Co., Gonic, N.H.; addition, 54 × 20, 4 stories.

Riverview Worsted Mills, Waterville, Me.; receiver appointed; nominal assets, \$240,000; liabilities, \$210,000.

Morrison Woolen Co., Dexter, Me.; incorporated under the same name.

Concord Mills, Concord Junction, Mass.; change of management: Andrew Adie, president, and James D. Colt, treasurer; the mill has recently been operated by Edward P. Chapin.

St. Paul Woolen Mills Co., Minneapolis, Minn.; incorporated; capital stock, \$75,000; John C. Storm, president, and James Tracy, treasurer.

Death of William Perry, Bridgton, Me., aged 85 years. He was president of the Forest Mills Co.  
Priscilla Worsted Mills, Providence, R.I.; incorporated; capital stock, \$30,000.

## APRIL.

Nasonville Woolen Co., Nasonville, R.I.; new boiler house, 50 × 35, and new 250 horse-power engine.

Glen Rock Mills, Pluckamin, N.J.; mill destroyed by fire; loss, \$100,000; insured.

Rotherwood Woolen Mills, Rotherwood, Tenn.; sold to the Meek Land Co.

Death of Joseph W. McGinley, Philadelphia, Pa., aged 76 years. He was the senior member of the firm McGinley & Klenk, yarn spinners.

Columbia Carpet & Rug Co., Trenton, N.J.; incorporated; capital stock, \$125,000; Anthony Hankey, president, and Frank Geyer, treasurer; will manufacture carpets and rugs.

Greene Knitting Co., Amsterdam, N.Y.; company dissolved; the plant has been idle for some time.

Death of Elbridge G. Carlton, Rochdale, Mass., aged 85 years. He was the senior member of the firm of E. G. Carlton & Sons and is said to have been the first to use a mixture of wool and cotton in the manufacture of white flannel.

Death of J. Walter Parker, head of the J. C. Parker Co., Quechee, Vt., aged 53 years.

Minterburn Mills Co., Rockville, Conn.; organized, capital stock, \$300,000, by Francis T. Maxwell, William Maxwell, David A. Sykes, Robert Maxwell, and Thomas W. Sykes; will erect a building of re-inforced concrete construction on the Adams Warp Mill property; Thomas W. Sykes, president, and William Maxwell, treasurer.

William Wolstenholme, Frankford, Pa.; addition to felt factory, 3 two-story brick buildings, 70 × 40, 100 × 26 and 74 × 48 feet.

Crawford Woolen Co., Martinsburg, W. Va.; damaged by fire, \$5,000; insured.

Death of William M. Pawling, knit goods manufacturer, of Hagaman, N.Y.; aged 68 years.

Kennebec Worsted Mills, Chester, Pa.; mill leased by this company destroyed by fire; loss, \$50,000; insured.

Hockanum Mills Co., Rockville, Conn. The Hockanum, Springville and New England mills merged into one company; capital stock, \$5,000,000, of which \$1,250,000 is preferred and \$3,750,000 common; Francis T. Maxwell, president, and William Maxwell, treasurer.

Shaw Machine Co., Lowell, Mass.; petitioned into bankruptcy.

Death of Joseph Hollinrake, Sanford, Me., April 18. He was prominently connected with the Goodall Worsted and the Maine Alpaca Companies. See Bulletin, page 164.

W. J. Brodmiekle, Clinton, Mass.; sold out his interest in the Stone Mill plant to the Messrs. Shuman and purchased another mill which he will equip for the manufacture of worsted goods.

## MAY.

James Lees & Sons, Bridgeport, Pa.; addition, 156 × 21 feet, machinery increased to 26 sets of cards, 28 combs and 17,000 worsted spindles; capital, \$800,000.

Rock Hill Mill, Manayunk, Pa.; occupied by Richard Hall and owned by James Dobson; destroyed by fire; loss, \$25,000.

Death of Henry Erben, Philadelphia, Pa., of the Erben-Harding Co., in California, aged 61 years. Bulletin, page 163.

South Bend Woolen Co., South Bend, Ind.; capital stock increased to \$200,000 from \$40,000.

Crescent Worsted Co., Lawrence, Mass.; unoccupied mill at West Concord, N.H.; owned by the Concord Manufacturing Co.; purchased to increase facilities.

Stead, Miller & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.; damaged by fire about \$15,000.

Morristown Woolen Mills, Morristown, Tenn.; incorporated; capital stock, \$100,000. A. B. Kesterson, president, and J. B. McCord, treasurer.

Alsace Worsted Co., Woonsocket, R.I.; addition, 165 × 55 feet.

Death of Benjamin Phipps, head of the firm of Parker, Wilder & Co., Boston, Mass., May 1, aged 82. Mr. Phipps was treasurer of a number of woolen mills, and had been for twenty years treasurer of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers and at the time of his death was the oldest woolen commission merchant in Boston. See Bulletin, page 113.

Kezar Falls Woolen Co., Kezar Falls, Me.; new office building, two stories, 60 × 35 feet.

J. J. Pfister Knitting Co., San Francisco, Cal.; mill destroyed by earthquake and fire.

Wayside Knitting Mill, Troy, N.Y.; leased by the Wright Health Underwear Co., to replace mill destroyed by fire at North Pownal, Vt.

Nemasket Woolen Mills Co., Middleboro, Mass.; incorporated; capital stock, \$75,000; Crawford M. Barnes, president; George F. Sanford, treasurer; the company will operate the mills belonging to the Farwell estate.

Millbury Worsted Co., West Millbury, Mass.; new company will operate the Ramshorn Mills.

Guile & Waterhouse, Almyville, R.I.; partnership dissolved; the firm operated the Earncliffe Mills; the business will be continued by Mr. Walter A. Guile.

Waupaca Woolen Mills, Waupaca, Wis.; sold to Proctor Bro's, of Genesee, Wis.

Fox Mill, Stafford Springs, Conn.; sold to Rhode Island Worsted Co., which will make additions.

Abbot Worsted Co., Graniteville, Mass.; addition to engine room.

Puritan Mills, American Woolen Co., Plymouth, Mass.; large addition to weave shed; will install 200 additional Crompton & Knowles looms and 26 new spoolers.

Wanskuck Co., Providence, R.I.; large addition, new building, 3 stories, 306 × 76 feet, and new engine 750 horse-power.

Joseph H. Wicks Woolen Co., Spencer, Mass.; incorporated; capital stock, \$12,000; Wallace H. Leavitt, president; Joseph H. Wicks, treasurer.

Death of Edward Gledhill, manager of the Marston Worsted Co., Skowhegan, Me., May 31, aged 36 years. He was drowned by the overturning of a canoe.

Lakeville Woolen Mill, West Rutland, Mass.; purchased by F. R. Smith, of Danielson, Conn.

Wood Worsted Mill, American Woolen Co., Lawrence, Mass. Operations in this mill, the building of which commenced last September, have begun. The company has a capital stock of \$1,000,000, and will have an equipment of 64 combs, 6,400 worsted spindles and 1,000 looms. Yarn will be manufactured on the Bradford system. William M. Wood is president, and B. F. Smith, Jr., treasurer.

#### JUNE.

Death of Andrew Simpson, Manayunk, Pa., June 4, aged 67 years. He was born in Scotland, in 1873, and was senior member of the firm of Simpson Bros., operating the Burnhill Woolen Manufacturing Co.'s plant.

Glendale Elastic Fabric Co., Easthampton, Mass.; addition to finishing rooms, 2 stories, 36 × 24 feet

Terry Manufacturing Co., Waterville, Me.; new company; capital stock,

- \$100,000; will operate plant of the Riverview Worsted Mill; Robert A. Latimer, president; G. F. Terry, treasurer.
- Bannockburn Manufacturing Co., Albany, Ore.; incorporated; capital stock, \$200,000; Charles Cooper, president; H. M. Grant, treasurer; will rebuild and operate plant recently destroyed by fire.
- Louisville Woolen Mills, Louisville, Ky.; purchased by the Sweetwater Woolen Mills, Sweetwater, Tenn., for \$200,000; will be operated under old name.
- Beargrass Woolen Mills, Louisville, Ky.; purchased by J. C. Hughes, at auction, for \$6,500; Mr. Hughes was formerly treasurer of the company.
- Death of Henry Gaunt of the Tremont Worsted Mills, Methuen, Mass., June 13, aged 55 years.
- Riverview Worsted Mills, Waterville, Me.; purchased by the Amos Abbott Co., of Dexter, Me.

## JULY.

- Death of Nahum Harwood, Leominster, Mass. He was a prominent manufacturer and president of the Leominster Worsted Co.
- Death of Elbridge N. Harris, president of the Rodney Hunt Machine Co., Orange, Mass., at his home in Malden, July 12, aged 77 years.
- Wicks Woolen Mill, Spencer, Mass.; purchased by the Taylor Woolen Company which has been operating the plant.
- Crosby Manufacturing Co., East Glastonbury, Conn.; plant sold to Angus Park, of Hanover, and will be operated by the Angus Park Co.; capital stock, \$50,000.
- J. C. Parker & Co., Quechee, Vt.; mill purchased by A. G. & R. L. Harris, of Penacook, N.H., who will operate it under the name of the J. C. Parker Co.; capital stock, \$100,000; R. L. Harris, president, and A. G. Harris, treasurer.
- Templeton Woolen Mills, Otter River, Mass.; plant sold to the Hamlet Mills, Oakdale, Mass., to which place machinery will be removed.
- Napa Woolen Mills, Napa, Cal.; mills closed and machinery sold, to go to Stayton, Ore.
- Shaw Machine Co., Lowell, Mass.; land and buildings sold to Wm. M. Wood, of the American Woolen Co., for \$165,000; also a large part of the machinery.

## AUGUST.

- Rhode Island Worsted Co., Stafford Springs, Conn.; addition to the Fox Mill, weave shed, 1 story, 235 × 165 feet.
- Brampton Woolen Co., Newport, N.H.; new company; capital stock, \$50,000; S. M. Richards, president; will operate 8 sets of cards on dress goods, etc.
- Grosvenor Woolen Co., Palmer, Mass.; plant burned in December; assigned.
- Death of Daniel W. Taft, Uxbridge, Mass., July 27, aged 73 years. For many years he operated the Stanley Woolen Mills, and later became a member of the firm of Hobbs, Taft & Co., wool dealers, Boston. He was a brother of Royal C. Taft, ex-Governor of Rhode Island.
- Fairmount Wool Scouring Co., Hyde Park, Mass.; damaged by fire, \$6,000; insured.
- Daniels's Worsted Mills, Worcester, Mass.; addition, 2 stories, 88 × 48 feet.
- Frank B. Graves, Albany, N.Y.; mill damaged by fire; loss, \$25,000; insured.
- A. T. Skerry Co., Changewater, N.J.; incorporated; capital stock, \$130,000; a consolidation of A. T. Skerry & Co., New York; the Hopatcong Worsted Mills, Changewater, N.J., and the Enterprise Worsted Mills, Millville, Pa.; A. T. Skerry, Jr., president, and J. A. F. Simpson, treasurer.



## 438 NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF WOOL MANUFACTURERS.

Death of Horace D. Curtis, Woodbury, Conn., aged 65 years.

United States Bunting Co., Lowell, Mass.: addition, new building, 5 stories, 250 × 70 feet.

Jno. L. Fead & Son, Lexington, Mich.; mill destroyed by fire.

Death of Joseph Messick, Sr., Chester, Pa., August 17. He was formerly a member of the firm of Dailey & Messick.

Wassokeag Woolen Co., Dexter, Me.; addition, 3 stories, 42 × 42 feet.

Death of William S. Davis, Philadelphia, Pa., aged 40 years. He manufactured carpet and other yarns in the Ripka Mills.

### SEPTEMBER.

Union Hosiery Co., Tilton, N.H.; mill damaged by fire; loss, \$4,200.

Jefferson Manufacturing Co., Jefferson, Mass.; incorporated; capital stock, \$100,000; will operate plant now operated by company of same name.

Elite Spinning Co., Washington, R.I.; incorporated; capital stock, \$50,000; will operate plant of same name; J. Howard Dews, president; Joseph Dews, treasurer.

C. A. Root & Co., Uxbridge, Mass.; addition, 1 story, 80 × 30 feet.

Nemasket Worsted Mills, Middleboro, Mass.; damaged by fire; loss, \$1,000.

Strathmore Worsted Mills, Concord, Mass.; incorporated; capital stock, \$150,000; Andrew Adie, president; J. D. Colt, treasurer; will operate plant known as the Concord Mills.

Death of Joseph M. Bassett, formerly of Johnson & Bassett, machinery manufacturers, Worcester, Mass., at Paris, France, September 12, aged 72 years.

Marysville Wool Scouring Co., Newton, Mass.; incorporated; capital stock, \$100,000; N. B. K. Brooks, president; J. H. O'Brien, treasurer.

Erben-Harding Co., Philadelphia, Pa.; will add new 4-story building, 153 × 101 feet, reinforced concrete construction to their Tacony plant.

Moseley & Co., Highlandville, Mass.; hosiery mill destroyed by fire; loss, \$30,000; partly insured.

Central Mills, Stafford Springs, Conn.; sold by the A. H. Paton Manufacturing Co., to Cyril Johnson.

Concord Woolen Mill, Nicajack, N.C.; purchased by Mrs. J. Lindsay Johnson.

Excelsior Mills, Farnumsville, Mass.; incorporated; capital stock, \$300,000; George O. Draper, president; Charles A. Root, treasurer; will manufacture woolen and cotton goods.

Death of Herbert Pease, North Vassalboro, Me., September 28, aged 42 years. He was a native of England but came to the United States when about 12 years of age. He was employed in various mills, but some years ago entered into the shoddy manufacture on his own account.

Death of Frank W. Hinsdale at Pittsfield, Mass., aged 80 years. He was born at Hinsdale, September 7, 1826. He carried on the woolen manufacture for many years in connection with his brother under the name of Hinsdale Bros., at his native town.

Moseley & Co., Highlandville, Mass.; hosiery mill destroyed by fire; loss estimated at \$30,000; partly insured.

### OCTOBER.

Rock Manufacturing Co., Rockville, Conn.; addition, brick building, 1 story, 150 × 50 feet.

Harder Manufacturing Co., Rensselaer, N.Y.; addition to finishing department, building, 3 stories and basement, 162 × 62 feet.

Mayfield Woolen Mills, Mayfield, Ky.; damaged by fire; loss estimated at \$350,000.

Victor Manufacturing Co., Clinton, Mass.; new company incorporated, capital stock, \$100,000; V. P. Thewtes, president; Wm. G. Wright,

treasurer; will operate mills recently occupied by the Nashua Valley Mills.

Grosvenor Woolen Co., Palmer, Mass.; mill sold by mortgagee for \$6,300 to Mr. F. F. Mahey.

Snowdon Worsted Mills, Providence, R.I.; incorporated; capital stock, \$50,000.

Death of Charles P. Ring, Philadelphia, Pa., October 15, aged 60 years; he was the senior member of the firm of Jonathan Ring & Son, merino yarn manufacturers. He had been engaged in the business since 1871.

Central Manufacturing Co., Stafford Springs, Conn.; incorporated; capital stock, \$50,000; Cyril Johnson, president; J. P. Jenness, treasurer; will operate the plant of the Central Woolen Co.

Robert Bleakie, Hyde Park, Mass.; mill and machinery offered for sale at auction but withdrawn, no satisfactory offers being received. The tenements and storehouse connected with the property, together with about 170,000 square feet of land, were sold for \$16,250.

#### NOVEMBER.

Waupaca Felting Mills, Waupaca, Wis.; incorporated; capital stock, \$50,000; will manufacture hat bodies.

Belvidere Woolen Co., Lowell, Mass.; addition, 100 × 24 feet for a dry house.

Slater Woolen Mill, Webster, Mass.; damaged by explosion of a steam cylinder.

Greenwood Worsted Mills, Jamestown, N.Y.; incorporated; capital stock, \$150,000, by E. Greenwood, J. E. Pitts and G. E. Feather.

Black River Woolen Mill, Ludlow, Vt.; addition, two stories, 175 × 54 feet.

Mississippi Mills, Wesson, Miss.; mills sold at auction for \$300,000 to G. Morris Stern, of New Orleans.

W. & R. Brier Woolen Mills, West Buxton, Me.; assigned.

Watertown Worsted Co., Watertown, Mass.; property sold and will be used in other business.

Farwell Worsted Mills, Central Falls, R.I.; plant sold at auction. The land and buildings were sold for \$75,000 to the Bryan-Marsh Co., of New York City, and will be used in the manufacture of electric lamps. The machinery was disposed of to various parties and brought about \$50,000.

Arlington Mills, Lawrence, Mass.; large additions to plant, a weave shed, dyeing and finishing building, a new worsted mill, and a large powerhouse, with a 2,000 k. w. turbo-generator. These additions will give employment to about 1,200 additional operatives.

Belleville Woolen Mills, Wickford, R.I.; purchased at auction by Joseph E. Fletcher of the Coronet Worsted Co., Mapleville, R.I., for \$25,000.

Horner Brothers, Eaton Rapids, Mich.; mill damaged by fire; loss, \$2,500.

Huguenot Mills, No. Oxford, Mass., purchased by F. Thayer of the Thayer Woolen Co., for \$10,000.

Death of William Maynard, Worcester, Mass., aged 73 years. For many years he was associated with his father and brother, Lorenzo Maynard, in the ownership and management of the Assabet Mills, Maynard, Mass. For a number of years he has been out of business.

QUARTERLY REPORT OF THE BOSTON WOOL MARKET  
FOR JULY, AUGUST, AND SEPTEMBER, 1906.

DOMESTIC WOOLS. (BENEDICT & LIVINGSTONE.)

	1906.			1905.
	July.	August.	September.	September.
<b>OHIO, PENNSYLVANIA, AND WEST VIRGINIA.</b>				
(WASHED.)				
XX and above . . . . .	34	34	34	36 @ 37
X . . . . .	31	31	31	34 @ 35
$\frac{1}{2}$ Blood . . . . .	37	37	38	41 @ 42
$\frac{1}{2}$ & $\frac{1}{4}$ Blood . . . . .	37	37	38	41 @ 42
Fine Delaine . . . . .	36	36	36	38 @ 39
(UNWASHED.)				
Fine . . . . .	26	26	25	27 @ 28
$\frac{1}{2}$ Blood . . . . .	32	32	32 @ 33	34 @ 35
$\frac{1}{2}$ & $\frac{1}{4}$ Blood . . . . .	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	32 @ 33	34 @ 35
Fine Delaine . . . . .	28 @ 29	28 @ 29	28 @ 29	30 @ 31
<b>MICHIGAN, WISCONSIN, NEW YORK, ETC.</b>				
(WASHED.)				
Fine . . . . .				31 @ 32
$\frac{1}{2}$ Blood . . . . .	36	36	37	40 @ 41
$\frac{1}{2}$ & $\frac{1}{4}$ Blood . . . . .	36	36	36	40 @ 41
Fine Delaine . . . . .	34	34	34	37 @ 38
(UNWASHED.)				
Fine . . . . .	24	24	24	25 @ 26
$\frac{1}{2}$ Blood . . . . .	31	31	31 @ 32	32 @ 33
$\frac{1}{2}$ & $\frac{1}{4}$ Blood . . . . .	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	33 @ 34
Fine Delaine . . . . .	26	26	26	28 @ 29
<b>KENTUCKY AND INDIANA.</b>				
(UNWASHED.)				
$\frac{1}{2}$ & $\frac{1}{4}$ Blood . . . . .	32 @ 33	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	35 @ 36
Braid . . . . .	28	28	27	30 @ 31
<b>MISSOURI, IOWA, AND ILLINOIS.</b>				
(UNWASHED.)				
$\frac{1}{2}$ & $\frac{1}{4}$ Blood . . . . .	31 @ 32	30 @ 31	30 @ 31	34 @ 35
Braid . . . . .	28	27	27	30 @ 31
<b>TEXAS.</b>				
(SCOURED BASIS.)				
Spring, fine, 12 months . . . . .	72	70	70	74 @ 76
"    "    6 to 8 months . . . . .	67	65	65	70 @ 72
"    medium, 12 months . . . . .	63	62	62	68 @ 70
"    "    6 to 8 months . . . . .	60	58	58	65 @ 68
Fall, fine . . . . .	none here.	none here.	none here.	62 @ 63
"    medium . . . . .	"    "	"    "	"    "	60 @ 61
<b>CALIFORNIA.</b>				
(SCOURED BASIS.)				
Spring, Northern, free, 12 months . . . . .	70 @ 72	70	70	73 @ 75
"    "    "    6 to 8 months . . . . .	65 @ 67	65	65	69 @ 70
Fall, free . . . . .	60 @ 62	60	60	62 @ 63
"    defective . . . . .	40 @ 45	40 @ 45	40 @ 45	48 @ 50
<b>TERRITORY WOOL: Montana, Wyoming, Utah, Idaho, Oregon, etc.</b>				
(SCOURED BASIS.)				
Staple, fine and fine medium . . . . .	70 @ 71	70	70	73 @ 76
"    medium . . . . .	65 @ 67	64 @ 65	64 @ 65	68 @ 72
Clothing, fine . . . . .	68 @ 69	68	68	72 @ 73
"    medium . . . . .	67 @ 68	67	66 @ 67	70 @ 72
"    medium . . . . .	63 @ 64	62	62	66 @ 70
<b>NEW MEXICO. (Spring.)</b>				
(SCOURED BASIS.)				
No. 1 . . . . .	65 @ 67	63 @ 64	63 @ 64	68 @ 70
No. 2 . . . . .	60 @ 62	58 @ 60	58 @ 60	64 @ 67
No. 3 . . . . .	50 @ 52	48 @ 50	48 @ 50	53 @ 56
No. 4 . . . . .	40 @ 43	38 @ 40	38 @ 40	44 @ 45
<b>NEW MEXICO. (Fall.)</b>				
(SCOURED BASIS.)				
No. 1 . . . . .	57 @ 58	56 @ 57	56 @ 57	none here.
No. 2 . . . . .	54 @ 56	52 @ 53	52 @ 53	"    "
No. 3 . . . . .	48 @ 49	45 @ 46	44 @ 45	"    "
No. 4 . . . . .	38 @ 39	37 @ 38	37 @ 38	"    "
<b>GEORGIA AND SOUTHERN.</b>				
Unwashed . . . . .	28 @ 29	28	28	33 @ 34

## DOMESTIC WOOL.

SEPTEMBER 29, 1906.

The present quarter (July to September) has been one of anticipation rather than realization in the wool trade generally, the volume of business transacted having been very disappointing. Up to the present time manufacturers have pursued a hand-to-mouth policy in supplying their wants, thus fulfilling their early predictions that this would be a year when they should let the dealers carry the stock and buy only to cover orders in hand.

In view of this sluggish condition of the market it is not strange that values should have weakened somewhat, although good worsted wools have held their own remarkably well and will undoubtedly all be wanted without much change in value.

Clothing wools, also scoured wools, have shown some decline in the past three months and many predict still lower prices for this class of stock, unless the demand from the woolen mills increases.

Fleece wools have maintained comparatively more strength than territory wools, there having been a fair demand for  $\frac{3}{8}$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$  blood and delaines;  $\frac{1}{4}$  blood grades have been neglected, as the trade demands fabrics of rather finer quality than last season.

In the territories the clip has practically all been moved and for the most part at very liberal prices. Notwithstanding this many growers have preferred to consign their clips rather than accept the offers which on to-day's market the would-be purchasers could not afford to repeat.

It is quite evident that many manufacturers are running their stock down to a point where they will soon be obliged to come into the market and it is a significant fact that deliveries are often requested as soon as purchases are made.

With the continuation of the present large consumption of domestic wool and the strength of all foreign markets, we think the outlook is good for a fair volume of business in the near future and at about ruling quotations.

BENEDICT &amp; LIVINGSTONE.



## FOREIGN WOOLS. (MAUGER &amp; AVERY.)

	1906.			1905.
	July.	August.	September.	September.
<b>Australian Combing:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	42 @ 43	42 @ 43	42 @ 43	42 @ 44
Good . . . . .	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	40 @ 41
Average . . . . .	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	37 @ 38
<b>Australian Clothing:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	42 @ 43	41 @ 43	41 @ 43	41 @ 43
Good . . . . .	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	39 @ 41
Average . . . . .	37 @ 38	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	37
<b>Sydney and Queensland:</b>				
Good Clothing . . . . .	38 @ 39	38 @ 39	38 @ 39	38 @ 40
Good Combing . . . . .	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	38 @ 40
<b>Australian Crossbred:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	44 @ 45	43 @ 44	43 @ 44	43 @ 45
Average . . . . .	42 @ 44	42 @ 43	42 @ 43	37 @ 40
<b>Australian Lambs:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	45 @ 47	45 @ 47	44 @ 46	41 @ 43
Good . . . . .	41 @ 43	40 @ 43	40 @ 43	38 @ 41
Good Defective . . . . .	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	30 @ 33
<b>Cape of Good Hope:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	35 @ 36	35 @ 36	35 @ 36	34 @ 36
Average . . . . .	31 @ 33	31 @ 33	31 @ 33	31 @ 33
<b>Montevideo:</b>				
Choice . . . . .	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	36 @ 38	35 @ 37
Average . . . . .	33 @ 35	33 @ 35	33 @ 35	32 @ 34
Crossbred, Choice . . . . .	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	39 @ 40	36 @ 38
<b>English Wools:</b>				
Sussex Fleece . . . . .	44 @ 45	44 @ 45	44 @ 45	41 @ 43
Shropshire Hogs . . . . .	43 @ 44	43 @ 44	43 @ 44	40 @ 43
Yorkshire Hogs . . . . .	42 @ 43	42 @ 43	42 @ 43	37 @ 39
Irish Selected Fleece . . . . .	42 @ 44	42 @ 44	42 @ 43	40 @ 42
<b>Carpet Wools:</b>				
Scotch Highland, White . . . . .	23 @ 24	23 @ 24	23 @ 24	23 @ 24
East India, 1st White Joria . . . . .	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	32 @ 33
East India, White Kandahar . . . . .	26 @ 28	26 @ 28	26 @ 28	26 @ 28
Donskoi, Washed, White . . . . .	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	31 @ 32	30 @ 31
Aleppo, White . . . . .	33 @ 35	33 @ 35	33 @ 35	31 @ 33
China Ball, White . . . . .	22 @ 23	22 @ 23	22 @ 23	23 @ 24
“ “ No. 1, Open . . . . .	19 @ 21	19 @ 21	19 @ 21	20 @ 21
“ “ No. 2, Open . . . . .	15 @ 16	15 @ 16	15 @ 16	13 @ 14

## FOREIGN WOOLS.

The demand during the past three months has been irregular on crossbred wools. For a while they were quite neglected, then there was an inquiry for wools of 36s quality, followed by a moderate demand for 50s to 56s. Later on there was a fair demand for 60s to 64s, the result being a material reduction in the supplies of all descriptions between 36s and 64s, except 44s and 46s.

Owing to lack of demand for serges and similar goods English wools have been quite neglected, and the Treasury reports show quite a large falling off in the importation during the current year.

A good deal of interest is felt in the future market in South America and Australia, and United States buyers will no doubt be in evidence when the market opens.

The carpet wool situation has improved. There has been a fair demand for third class wools of all descriptions, with strong inquiry for fine, long-stapled worsted wools.

Scotch wools have been in good demand, and have been taken freely during the past four or five weeks. Manufacturers of carpets are well employed and probably not well stocked with wool.

MAUGER & AVERY.

PULLED WOOLS. (*Scoured basis.*) (W. A. BLANCHARD.)

	1906.			1905.
	July.	August.	September.	September.
Brushed, Extra . . . . .	70 @ 73	70 @ 72	70 @ 72	72 @ 75
Fine A . . . . .	64 @ 67	63 @ 66	62 @ 65	67 @ 70
A Super . . . . .	57 @ 62	57 @ 60	56 @ 60	62 @ 65
B Super . . . . .	50 @ 53	50 @ 52	49 @ 52	57 @ 58
C Super . . . . .	40 @ 42	38 @ 40	38 @ 40	45 @ 47
Fine Combing . . . . .	60 @ 63	58 @ 62	58 @ 62	63 @ 67
Combing . . . . .	50 @ 52	50 @ 52	50 @ 52	54 @ 57
California, Extra . . . . .	67 @ 70	66 @ 70	66 @ 70	68 @ 72

REMARKS.

The market for the quarter has been dull and featureless. Lacking actual transactions, values on certain grades are indeterminate; but there has been a sagging tendency in the entire list, with the exception of so-called "blue-white" A and B supers, the supply of which is comparatively limited. Cotton and shoddy have entered largely into the manufacture of cheap woollens, and in the displacement pulled wools have been the heaviest sufferers. Occasional attempts have been made by over-stocked pullers to force sales by breaking prices, but such policy proved futile, and no permanent relief to the congestion can be expected until some radical change in the goods situation occurs. An additional burden for the wool puller has been the high price of pelts, values of which have been sustained by the phenomenal demand for sheep leather.

W. A. BLANCHARD.

Boston, October 1, 1906.

## IMPORTS OF WOOL AND MANUFACTURES OF WOOL.

Entered for Consumption, Years ending June 30, 1905 and 1906. Quantities, Values, Rates of Duty, and Accruing Duties.

From the Annual Report on Commerce and Finance by the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

ARTICLES.	Rates of duty.	1905.				1906.			
		Quantities.	Values.	Duties.	Quantities.	Values.	Duties.	Value per unit of quantity.	Average.
<b>Wool, hair of the camel, goat, alpaca, or other like animals:</b>									
<b>Class 1—Merino, mestiza, metz, or metis wools, or other wools of merino blood, immediate or remote, down clothing wools, etc., and all wools not hereinafter included in classes two and three—</b>									
Unwashed wool—									
On the skin (pounds) . . . . .	10 cents per pound,	2,902,245.60	496,139.00	290,224.56	2,448,088.20	442,313.00	234,808.82	181	55.35
Not on the skin (pounds) . . . . .	11 cents per pound,	73,834,454.00	15,751,480.00	8,121,789.99	91,027,193.10	21,359,479.00	10,012,991.25	235	46.88
Washed wool, not on the skin (pounds) . . . . .	22 cents per pound,	29,356.19	8,682.00	6,458.36	9,172.75	3,135.75	2,018.00	342	64.35
Scoured wool (pounds) . . . . .	33 cents per pound,	3,141.00	1,751.00	1,036.53	4,136.00	2,476.00	1,364.88	599	55.12
Total, Class 1 . . . . .		76,769,196.79	16,258,052.00	8,419,509.44	93,488,590.05	21,807,403.75	10,261,182.95	233	47.05
<b>Class 2—Leicester, Cotswold, Lincolnshire, down combing wools, Canada long wools, or other like combing wools of English blood, and usually known by the terms herein used, and also hair of the camel, Angora goat, alpaca and other like animals—</b>									
Wool, washed and unwashed—									
On the skin (pounds) . . . . .	11 cents per pound,	377,912.50	83,681.91	41,570.42	176,810.63	46,244.90	19,449.17	261	42.06
Not on the skin (pounds) . . . . .	12 cents per pound,	18,918,812.00	4,409,984.70	2,270,257.44	14,909,693.26	3,989,705.91	1,789,163.20	267	44.84
Wool, scoured (pounds) . . . . .	36 cents per pound,	109.00	202.00	3,924.00					





*Imports of Wool and Manufactures of Wool, entered for Consumption, Years ending June 30, 1905 and 1906. Quantities, Values, Rates of Duty, and Accruing Duties. — Continued.*

ARTICLES.	Rates of duty.	1905.				1906.				Average.
		Quantities.	Values.	Duties.	Quantities.	Values.	Duties.	Value per unit of quantity.	Ad valorem rate of duty.	
Wool, hair of the camel, etc.— <i>Continued.</i>										
Manufactures composed wholly or in part of wool, worsted, the hair of the camel, goat, alpaca, or other animals—										
Rags, mungo, flecks, nolls, shoddy, and waste—										
Mungo (pounds) . . . . .	10 cents per pound.	50.00	9.00	Dollars. 5.00	360.00	44.00	Dollars. 36.00	Dollars. 122	81.82	
Nolls (pounds) . . . . .	20 cents per pound.	90,314.00	31,625.00	18,062.80	393,401.00	161,094.00	78,698.20	409	48.85	
Rags and flecks (pounds) . . . . .	10 cents per pound.	68,141.40	12,734.00	6,814.14	233,181.00	67,700.00	23,318.10	29	34.44	
Shoddy (pounds) . . . . .	25 cents per pound.	50.00	5.00	12.50	8,968.00	1,283.00	2,239.50	143	174.55	
Wastes, slubbing, ring, and garnetted (pounds) . . . . .	30 cents per pound.	. . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	238.00	61.00	77.40	237	126.89	
Wastes, top and roving (pounds) . . . . .	30 cents per pound.	20.00	5.00	6.00	1,737.00	719.00	521.10	414	72.48	
Wool extract, yarn, thread, and all other wastes not specially provided for (pounds) . . . . .	20 cents per pound.	111,559.00	40,998.00	22,311.80	448,941.50	163,377.00	89,788.30	364	54.96	
Total rags, mungo, flecks, nolls, etc. . . . .	. . . . .	270,134.40	85,376.00	47,212.24	1,086,926.50	394,278.00	194,678.60	363	49.38	
Yarns, made wholly or in part of wool—										
Valued not more than 30 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	27½ cents per pound and 40 per cent.	4,254.00	1,181.00	1,642.26	339.70	97.24	132.33	286	136.09	
Valued more than 30 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	38½ cents per pound and 40 per cent.	183,421.92	132,539.53	123,633.40	211,179.59	170,275.04	149,414.42	806	87.73	
Total yarns . . . . .	. . . . .	187,675.92	133,720.53	125,275.66	211,519.38	170,372.28	149,546.75	806	87.78	

Blankets—									
Valued not more than 40 cents per pound (pounds)	22 cents per pound and 30 per cent.	2,022.50	597.40	624.20	1,226.61	386.07	386.69	.315	99.90
Valued more than 40 and not more than 50 cents per pound (pounds)	33 cents per pound and 35 per cent.	1,649.73	751.50	807.44	761.25	380.25	377.30	.473	104.72
Valued at more than 50 cents per pound (pounds)	33 cents per pound and 40 per cent.	16,434.62	16,906.35	12,185.91	24,343.31	28,730.35	19,525.45	1.18	67.96
More than 2 yards in length—									
Valued not more than 40 cents per pound (pounds)	33 cents per pound and 50 per cent.	1,679.50	507.00	807.74	2,221.00	561.50	1,013.68	.253	180.53
Valued more than 40 and not more than 70 cents per pound (pounds)	44 cents per pound and 50 per cent.	7,111.50	4,147.00	5,202.56	7,242.00	4,429.00	5,401.00	.612	121.95
Valued more than 70 cents per pound (pounds)	44 cents per pound and 55 per cent.	6,438.50	6,860.29	6,606.09	8,220.52	9,609.85	8,902.45	1.17	92.64
Total blankets		35,336.35	29,769.60	26,233.94	44,014.69	44,077.02	35,605.57	1.00	80.78
Carpets and carpeting—									
Aubusson, Axminster, moquette, and chenille carpets (square yards)	60 cts. pr. sq. yd. and 40 per cent.	18,747.86	38,178.00	26,519.80	26,357.69	57,705.00	38,896.62	2.19	67.41
Brussels carpets (square yards)	44 cts. pr. sq. yd. and 40 per cent.	13,222.75	14,705.00	11,700.01	13,400.00	16,900.00	12,256.00	1.19	77.08
Carpets woven whole for rooms, and Oriental, Berlin, Aubusson, Axminster, and other similar rugs (square yards)	90 cts. pr. sq. yd. and 40 per cent.	684,333.73	2,708,743.51	1,699,367.96	925,521.46	4,066,280.00	2,459,485.19	4.39	60.48
Drugssets and bookings, printed, colored, or otherwise (square yards)	22 cts. pr. sq. yd. and 40 per cent.	5,992.00	3,854.00	2,859.84	15,783.00	10,423.00	7,647.86	.661	73.26
Felt carpeting (square yards)	50 per cent.	1,795.00	2,635.00	1,317.50	4,013.00	1,719.00	859.50	.428	50.00
Saxony, Wilton, and Tournay velvet carpets, square yards	60 cts. pr. sq. yd. and 40 per cent.	25,380.51	44,690.00	33,104.31	33,974.11	62,880.00	45,536.47	1.85	72.42
Tapstry Brussels, printed on the warp or otherwise (square yards)	28 cents per sq. yd. and 40 per cent.	90.75	121.00	73.81	143.00	123.00	89.24	.86	72.55

*Imports of Wool and Manufactures of Wool, entered for Consumption, Years ending June 30, 1905 and 1906. Quantities, Values, Rates of Duty, and Accruing Duties. — Continued.*

ARTICLES.	Rates of duty.	1905.			1906.			Average.
		Quantities.	Values.	Duties.	Quantities.	Values.	Duties.	
			Dollars.	Dollars.		Dollars.	Dollars.	Value per unit of quantity. Ad valorem duty.
Wool, hair of the camel, etc. — <i>Continued.</i>								
Manufactures composed wholly or in part of wool, worsted, etc. — <i>Continued.</i>								
Carpets and carpeting. — <i>Continued.</i>								
Treble ingrain, three-ply, and all chain Venetian carpets (square yards) . . . . .	22 cts. pr. sq. yd. and 40 per cent.	14,205.00	11,000.00	7,525.10	17,918.00	13,122.00	9,190.76	.732 70.04
Velvet and tapestry velvet carpets, printed on the warp or otherwise (square yards) . . . .	40 cts. pr. sq. yd. and 40 per cent.	27,266.25	45,945.00	29,284.50	25,989.50	46,181.00	28,856.20	1.78 62.49
Wool, Dutch, and two-ply ingrain carpets (square yards) . . . . .	18 cts. pr. sq. yd. and 40 per cent.	2,256.00	2,270.00	1,314.08	1,547.75	1,241.00	774.99	.802 62.45
Carpets of wool, or in part of, not specially provided for (square yards) . . . . .	50 per cent. . . . .	21,096.86	36,949.00	18,474.50	26,952.90	44,435.00	22,217.51	1.65 50.00
Mats, rugs for floors, screens, covers, hassocks, bedsteads, art squares, and other portions of carpets and carpeting, not specially provided for (square yards) . . . . .	50 per cent. . . . .	2.00	1.50	.75	3.00	3.00	1.50	1.00 50.00
Total carpets and carpeting . . . . .	. . . . .	814,388.51	2,909,092.01	1,831,572.16	1,091,572.51	4,320,037.00	2,625,811.84	3.95 60.78
Cloths, woollen or worsted — Valued not more than 40 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	33 cents per pound and 50 per cent.	2,022.50	597.46	624.20	11,834.50	4,502.60	6,156.69	.38 136.73

Valued more than 40 cents and not more than 70 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	243,066.76	132,694.30	184,176.51	312,484.38	190,195.70	232,591.08	504	122.29
Valued above 70 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	3,377,229.47	3,722,474.60	3,533,892.08	4,322,135.27	4,697,924.33	4,486,597.76	1.09	95.43
Valued above 70 cents per pound (pounds) (reciprocity treaty with Cuba) . . . . .	2.00	2.00	1.58	6.00	12.00	7.38	2.00	81.50
Total cloths, etc. . . . .	3,630,424.23	3,878,801.75	3,722,067.20	4,646,460.15	4,892,334.63	4,724,352.91	1.05	96.56
Dress goods, women's and children's, coat linings, Italian cloths, and goods of similar description —								
The warp consisting wholly of cotton or other vegetable materials, with the remainder of the fabric composed wholly or in part of wool —								
Valued not exceeding 15 cents per square yard and not above 70 cents per pound (square yards) . . . . .	20,257,801.75	2,449,556.00	2,642,820.45	18,453,774.40	2,245,173.00	2,414,350.68	.122	107.53
Valued not exceeding 15 cents per square yard and above 70 cents per pound (square yards) . . . . .	1,122,911.50	154,816.00	163,752.00	1,574,838.50	219,342.00	230,876.80	.139	105.26
Valued above 15 cents per square yard and not above 70 cents per pound (square yards) . . . . .	815,897.00	131,177.00	130,853.06	587,081.87	100,085.00	97,009.05	.17	96.92
Valued above 15 cents per square yard and above 70 cents per pound (square yards) . . . . .	9,101,416.45	1,899,821.00	1,773,014.87	9,921,002.08	1,845,098.00	1,736,484.07	.205	94.11
Welting over 4 ounces per square yard —								
Valued not more than 40 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	659.25	189.00	312.05	476.50	149.00	231.75	.313	153.54
Valued more than 40 and not more than 70 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	1,924.50	1,199.00	1,450.74	12,690.25	7,992.00	9,579.71	.63	119.86
Valued more than 70 cents per pound (pounds), composed wholly or in part of wool —	25,667.41	30,417.90	27,975.11	19,366.33	19,180.00	19,075.16	.99	99.41
Valued not above 70 cents per pound (square yards) . . . . .	597,752.00	59,253.70	63,481.88	100,170.00	17,497.00	19,767.17	.175	112.97



*Imports of Wool and Manufactures of Wool, entered for Consumption, Years ending June 30, 1905 and 1906. Quantities, Values, Rates of Duty, and Accruing Duties. — Continued.*

ARTICLES.	Rates of duty.	1905.			1906.			Average.
		Quantities.	Values.	Duties.	Quantities.	Values.	Duties.	Value per unit of quantity. Add rate of duty.
Wool, hair of the camel, etc. — <i>Continued.</i>								
Manufactures composed wholly or in part of wool, worsted, etc. — <i>Continued.</i>								
Dress goods, women's and children's, etc. — <i>Cont.</i>								
Valued above 70 cents per pound (square yards).	11 cts. per sq. yd. and 55 per cent.	10,300,312.04	2,443,539.22	2,476,980.90	15,756,157.29	3,422,485.76	3,615,544.54	.217 105.64
Weighting over 4 ounces per square yard —								
Valued not more than 40 cents per pound (pounds)	33 cents per pound and 50 per cent.	1,199.00	388.00	579.67	945.00	265.00	444.35	.28 167.68
Valued more than 40 and not more than 70 cents per pound (pounds)	44 cents per pound and 50 per cent.	479,058.50	333,163.00	377,367.24	382,428.50	241,589.00	280,063.04	.63 119.65
Valued more than 70 cents per pound (pounds)	44 c. p. lb. & 55 p. c.	1,342,301.94	1,303,972.00	1,307,797.46	1,960,445.29	1,874,879.92	1,803,779.89	.956 101.01
Total dress goods			8,807,451.82	8,966,386.09		9,993,744.68	10,326,206.21	.209 103.33
Felts not woven (pounds)	44 c. p. lb. & 60 p. c.	77,968.75	91,410.00	89,108.28	93,753.25	119,448.85	112,920.75	1.27 94.54
Flannels for underwear —								
Valued not more than 40 cts. per pound (pounds)	22 c. p. lb. & 30 p. c.	42.50	13.60	13.43	168.00	63.00	55.86	.371 85.57
Valued more than 40 and not more than 50 cents per pound (pounds)	33 c. p. lb. & 35 p. c.	172.50	76.25	83.62	409.00	201.00	205.32	.491 102.15
Valued more than 50 and not more than 70 cents per pound (square yards)	11 c. p. sq. yd. and 50 per cent.	13.86	5.95	4.51	606.00	145.00	139.16	.239 95.97
Valued above 70 cents per pound (square yards)	11 c. p. sq. yd. and 55 per cent.	5,138.78	1,568.24	1,427.81	40,375.00	12,286.53	11,198.84	.304 91.15

<b>Weighing over 4 ounces per square yard —</b>									
Valued more than 50 and not more than 70 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	1,375.50	750.00	980.22	9,937.50	5,973.76	7,368.18	.60	123.34	
Valued more than 70 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	52,062.50	43,856.75	47,028.71	68,779.00	55,514.78	60,795.89	.807	109.51	
Total hannels . . . . .	. . . . .	46,270.79	49,538.30	. . . . .	74,181.07	79,763.25	.617	107.52	
<b>Knit fabrics (not wearing apparel) —</b>									
Valued not more than 40 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	. . . . .	2.50	1.00	1.33	.40	133.00	
Valued more than 40 and not more than 70 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	41.00	26.60	31.34	2,246.00	1,287.00	1,631.74	.573	126.78	
Valued above 70 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	7,663.75	7,357.00	7,682.40	6,053.20	6,355.00	6,158.66	1.05	96.91	
Total knit fabrics (not wearing apparel), (pounds) . . . . .	7,704.75	7,863.60	7,713.74	8,301.70	7,643.00	7,791.73	.921	101.94	
<b>Plushes and other pile fabrics —</b>									
Valued not over 40 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	80.00	29.00	40.90	15.00	6.00	7.95	.40	132.50	
Valued more than 40 and not more than 70 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	483.00	236.00	330.52	26.00	14.00	18.44	.558	131.71	
Valued more than 70 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	10,077.66	14,089.00	12,183.12	5,266.92	8,617.95	7,057.31	1.64	81.89	
Total plushes, etc., (pounds) . . . . .	10,640.66	14,354.00	12,554.54	5,307.92	8,637.95	7,083.70	1.63	82.61	
<b>Wearing apparel : Clothing, ready-made, and articles of wearing apparel, made up or manufactured wholly or in part, not specially provided for — (coats, dolmans, etc., for ladies' and children's apparel, and articles used for like purposes, (pounds) . . . . .</b>									
Hats of wool (pounds) . . . . .	12,293.47	61,085.85	42,389.76	33,399.18	101,247.67	75,444.28	3.03	74.55	
Knitted articles (pounds) . . . . .	2,405.06	4,925.99	4,014.20	2,180.34	3,790.25	3,237.39	1.73	85.42	
Knitted articles (pounds) . . . . .	413,557.55	528,371.61	505,054.13	473,236.73	802,768.93	569,928.35	1.27	94.55	

*Imports of Wool and Manufactures of Wool, entered for Consumption, Years ending June 30, 1905 and 1906. Quantities, Values, Rates of Duty, and Accruing Duties. — Continued.*

ARTICLES.	Rates of duty.	1905.				1906.				Average.
		Quantities.	Values.	Duties.	Quantities.	Values.	Duties.	Quantities.	Value per unit of quantity.	
Wool, hair of the camel, etc. — <i>Continued.</i>										
Manufactures composed wholly or in part of wool, worsted, etc. — <i>Continued.</i>										
Wearing apparel, etc. — <i>Continued.</i>										
Knitted articles from Philippine Islands (pounds)	75 per cent. of 44 cents per pound and 60 per cent.									
Shawls, knitted or woven (pounds) . . . . .	44 cents per pound and 60 per cent.	60,105.63	65,761.25	65,903.23	.63.	3.00	45,193.57	1.19	97.01	
Other clothing, ready-made, and articles of wearing apparel, made up or manufactured, wholly or in part (pounds) . . . . .	44 cents per pound and 60 per cent.	364,989.37	1,020,811.20	773,082.09			877,230.36	2.74	76.05	
Other clothing, ready-made, and articles of wearing apparel, made up or manufactured, wholly or in part, from Philippine Islands, (pounds) . . . . .	75 p. c. of 44 c. per pound and 60 p. c.	3.63	4.00	3.00	7.50	13.00	8.37	1.73	64.38	
Other clothing (reciprocity treaty with Cuba), (pounds) . . . . .	44 cents per pound and 60 per cent. less 20 per cent.	9.00	31.00	18.06	8.00	26.00	15.29	3.25	58.80	
Total wearing apparel (pounds) . . . . .		853,294.22	1,691,750.93	1,390,494.47	969,191.43	1,907,703.11	1,571,059.18	1.97	82.35	
Webbings, goings, suspenders, bandings, beltings, bindings, braids, edgings, fringes, gimps, cords, and other trimmings, etc. (pounds) . . . . .	50 cents per pound and 60 per cent.	6,749.42	25,303.33	18,556.71	6,484.11	21,210.50	15,968.43	3.27	75.29	

Ditto (from Philippine Islands) (pounds) . . . . .	75 per cent. of 50 cents per pound and 60 per cent. . .	2.00	15.00	7.50	.75	2.00	1.19	2.67	59.95
All other manufactures wholly or in part of wool — Valued not more than 40 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	33 cents per pound and 50 per cent. . .	36,206.75	12,749.75	18,323.13	22,207.63	7,641.00	11,149.03	.344	145.91
Valued more than 40 and not more than 70 cents per pound (pounds) . . . . .	44 cents per pound and 50 per cent. . .	46,736.52	27,165.00	34,146.57	31,712.50	18,651.00	23,279.00	.588	124.81
( 44 cts. per pound and 55 per cent. Duty remitted (Sec. 12, act July 24, 1897) . . . . .	147,143.18	258,461.67	206,896.68	216,454.53	370,176.09	298,836.93	1.71	80.73	
Valued more than 70 cents per pound (pounds)	Duty remitted (Sec. 14, act July 24, 1897) . . . . .				2,089.00	1,894.00		.907	
Ditto (from Philippine Islands) . . . . .	75 per cent. of 44 cents per pound and 55 per cent. . .				84.00	123.00		1.46	
Total manufactures of wool . . . . .	Dutiable . . . . .				2.50	4.00	2.49	1.60	62.25
Total wool and manufactures of . . . . .	Dutiable . . . . .								
		18,021,041.68	16,547,592.08			22,855,591.48	20,185,048.99		90.30
		53,465,490.19	33,077,578.79			63,265,115.44	37,968,695.04		60.02





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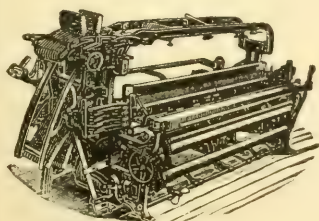
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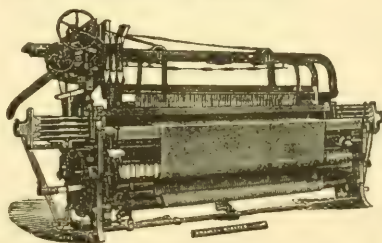
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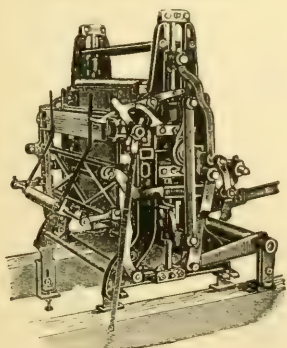
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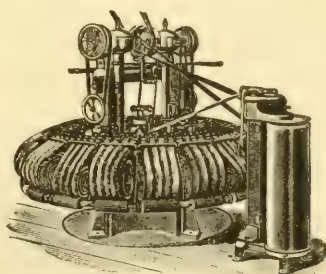
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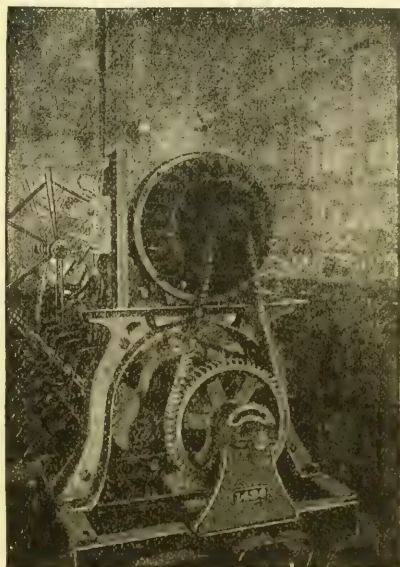
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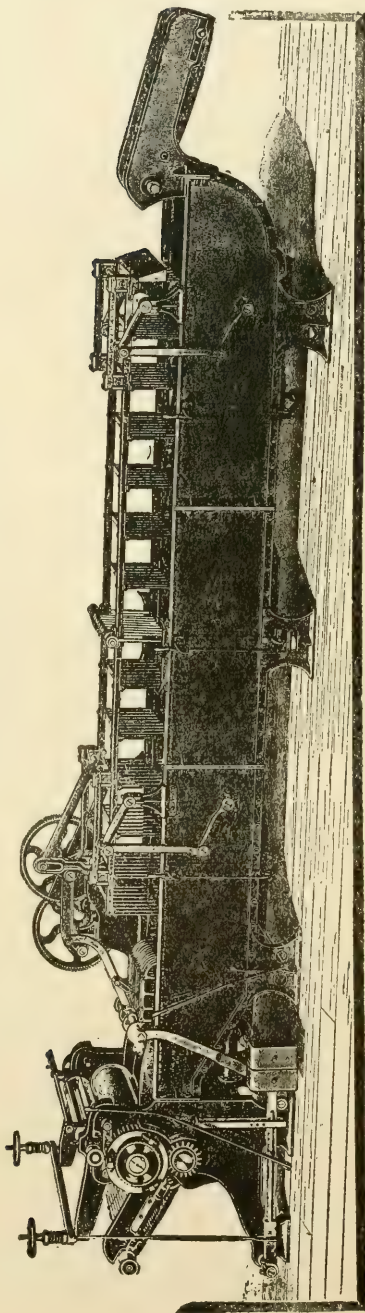
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